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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the second section of a book of readings on issues related to adult career development. The five chapters in this second section focus on strategies and methods for providing adults with career services. "The Adult Career Program Developer as Learner" (H. Daniel Lea and Zandy Leibowitz) presents a five-stage model of adult career program development. It discusses the stages of data gathering, conceptualization, design, implementation, and evaluation/redesign and examines how individual learning styles of program developers can affect the program development process. "Appraising Adults' Career Capabilities: Ability, Interest, and Personality" (John Crites) presents a review and critical analysis of scientific findings on appraisal instruments for adult career capabilities and informed experience with them. Included are discussions of ability tests, vocational interest inventories, and personality measures. "Counseling Adults for Career Change" (Lawrence Brammer and Philip Abrego) explores counseling approaches for assisting adults in managing their career changes or transitions. It presents a general model of the helping process. "Systematic Career Guidance and Computer-Based Systems" (JoAnn Harris-Bowlsbey) presents a generic model for the content of a career guidance program, distinguishes between computer-based career information and career guidance systems, and relates these two types of systems to the generic model. "A Team Approach to Career Counseling" (Carol Blimline and David Schwandt) discusses three major categories of counseling interventions: professionally assisted counseling, self-paced counseling, and employer-assisted counseling. (NB)

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SECTION II:

STRATEGIES AND METHODS

A VARIETY OF APPROACHES. . .

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CHAPTER 4

The Adult Career Program Developer as Learner

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Successful program development in adult career development settings requires a person with the following qualities:

- 40% willingness to learn
- 10% commitment
- 10% expertise
- 10% courage
- 10% emotional endurance
- 10% pragmatism
- 10% sense of humor

In short, program developers are, first and foremost, learners. Program development is an experiential learning process in which program developers discover how to provide the most relevant services to both program users and sponsors. The program is the product of this learning process.

"Experts" do not make good program developers because experts feel they have the answers to clients' problems and needs. Good program developers never assume they know the answers. However, they do know questions—questions that will help them learn what is appropriate to meet clients' needs.

MODEL OF ADULT CAREER PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

There are five basic questions that the program developer—as learner—must answer. These are:

- What needs to be done?
- What is possible?
- What is realistic?
- What steps need to be taken?
- What needs to be retained/what needs to be changed?

These questions form the basis for the five-stage model of adult career program development described in this chapter. Table 1 outlines the model.

This model incorporates Kolb's learning style concepts (Kolb & Plovnick, 1977; Kolb, 1984). Kolb conceives of learning as a four-stage cycle: Experience serves as the basis for observation and reflection; observations serve as the basis for theory formation; and finally, theories provide input for decision making and problem solving. The model also incorporates principles of effective career development systems (Leibowitz, Farren, & Kaye, 1985).

Elaboration of each program development stage will be organized around the following questions:

1. What is the learning objective for the program developer at this stage?
2. What program development activity will lead to this learning?
3. What learning behaviors are the most useful at this stage?
4. What role do potential program users and program sponsors play in the process?
5. If effective learning takes place, what is the desired end result at this stage?
6. What are the practical issues and implications that need to be considered at this stage of program development?

The final section of the chapter will examine how the inherent strengths and weaknesses of characteristic individual learning styles of program developers can affect the program development process.

STAGE I: DATA GATHERING

Description

The primary learning objective of Stage I is to find an answer to the question, "What needs to be done?" In other words, "What do the people you wish to serve by the program need?" In addition, "What do the sponsors of the program need from the program?" Answers to these questions are usually provided by carrying out a needs assessment. Needs assessments can range from highly sophisticated survey techniques to structured interviews, even to include informal hallway chats. Regardless of technique, all are data generating and data gathering procedures with the primary purpose to help the program developer become thoroughly acquainted with the environment and people who potentially may be served by the program. Needs assessments also serve to provide involvement and commitment of the people who will subsequently be served by the program.

Table 1
Stages of Program Development

<i>Program Development Stage</i>	<i>Learning Objective</i>	<i>Program Development Activity</i>	<i>Learning Style</i>	<i>User/Sponsor Role</i>	<i>Desired End Result</i>
Stage I: Data Gathering	What needs to be done?	Needs assessment	Divergent	Resource	Needs database
Stage II: Conceptualization	What is possible?	Visioning/ model building	Assimilative	Translator	Theoretical program model
Stage III: Design	What is realistic?	Strategy design	Convergent	Reality check	Program strategy
Stage IV: Implementation	What steps need to be taken?	Logistical action planning	Accommodative	Catalyst	Logistical action plan
Stage V: Evaluation/ Redesign	What needs to be retained/ what needs to be changed?	Evaluation-based redesign	Assimilative/ all styles	Source of feedback	Ideas for improvement

Kolb's *divergent* learning style includes the key behaviors that program developers use in Stage I. According to Kolb, divergent learning requires an openness to concrete experience and reflective observation of that experience. In program development, there has to be some method of generating data from concrete experience, and observing and recording that data. Any interaction with a potential client population or program sponsor provides the potential for generation of needs data. Consequently, it is pretty difficult to make mistakes in this phase of program development unless isolation from the people the program is supposed to serve takes place. However, mistakes can be made in the second aspect of divergent learning. Time is often not taken to think about what is heard or experienced, thus preventing the data from sinking in as a learning experience.

The program developer cannot successfully meet the learning objective of this stage without assistance. There must be involvement of potential program users and sponsors. Both are *data resources*. Potential users are the foremost experts in terms of their own needs. In addition, sponsors can identify what they will need to realize in order to justify supporting the program.

As an end result of this stage the program developer has a substantive database from which to visualize a program. Good program developers may not always have answers, but the right questions asked in this phase will provide a sound program start.

Issues, Implications, and Other Assorted Practical Tips

- There is no best method of data generation and gathering. Sometimes data generated in a friendly chat over a cup of coffee can be as valid and reliable as those produced by the most rigorous scientific methods. Never underestimate the power of good communication skills.
- Combining several assessment methods—if possible—is usually more useful than emphasizing one. Surveys, interviews, observations, and direct experience all have their strengths and problems.
- When does one stop gathering data and move on to the next stage? Move on when you feel you can do a fair job of walking in the users' and sponsors' shoes.
- Use conceptual tools to raise hypotheses, then use concrete data to validate/invalidate these hypotheses. Holland's personality/environmental types (Holland, 1973), Deal and Kennedy's organizational cultures (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), Super's developmental tasks (Super, Crites, Humme, Moser, Overstreet & Warnath, 1957), Dalton, Thompson and Price's career stages (Dalton, Thompson, & Price, 1977), and Crites's model of career maturity (Crites, 1973) are examples of practical models that can be quite useful at this stage if used as a source of questions rather than definitive answers.
- Identify problems of the program sponsor that may be solved by the program. What will the sponsor get out of the program—*both now and in the future*? There are few totally altruistic program sponsors.
- Identify potential obstacles and resources, which can take the form of people or things.

- Balance the energy and resources committed to data collection with those expended for the entire program. Don't spend 90% of your time and money on Stage I, with only 10% to allocate to subsequent steps.
- One never feels one has enough data. Do the best you can in the amount of time you have and move on to the next stage. The entire program development process will generate data. The stages of program development are not mutually exclusive.

STAGE II: CONCEPTUALIZATION

Description

The primary learning objective of Stage II is to conceptualize an answer to the question, "What is possible?" In other words, "What programmatic options can I visualize that would address the needs of both program users and sponsors?" The program development activities of this stage involve visioning and model building. Visioning involves that difficult-to-describe, creative, cognitive activity that has been called "forming a dream" (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). It is not totally fantasy-based because the stimulus for visioning is data-based. The reality data that were collected in Stage I provide the context for a vision. Model building gives form and substance to the vision. Model building goes one step beyond visioning and translates that vision into a concrete, tangible, theoretical blueprint. Visioning and model building involve a complementary melding of creativity and logic.

Kolb's *assimilative* learning style incorporates the primary behaviors that program developers use in Stage II. According to Kolb, *assimilative* learning requires reflective observation and abstract conceptualization. In Stage II of program development, the creative activity of visioning or dreaming is given form by the logical theorizing of model building. A good program developer at this stage utilizes two very different but complementary types of behavior. Visioning is not limited by the restrictiveness of logic. However, logic provides an element of discipline to creativity.

The activities of Stage II are primarily the responsibility of the program developer. Certain creative individuals from among potential program users and sponsors may be useful to this stage, but the program developer should be very selective. Many program users and sponsors are too close to reality to be helpful at this stage. They will "yes, but . . ." every creative idea to death! Where assistance can be rendered is in the latter phases of Stage II when the theoretical program model must be translated into language that is readily understood in the environment in which the program will be implemented. What is acceptable is often merely a matter of semantics. One of the authors, who had to implement a career development program in an organization composed largely of career plateaued employees in the latter stages of their careers, was able to gain acceptance of the program by changing the name of the program from career development to career assistance. What was different? The difference was semantics. Career "development" in that environment meant vertical mobility, which was viewed—correctly—as unrealistic. "Assistance" had no

restrictive connotations and consequently allowed for the consideration of various other career options such as job enrichment and lateral mobility.

As a product of Stage II the program developer will have a theoretical program model. This structure will be the foundation and underpinnings from which numerous program strategies can emanate in the next stage of program development.

Issues, Implications, and Other Assorted Practical Tips

- McCaskey's concept of directional planning (McCaskey, 1977) provides some useful concepts for the visioning and model building of Stage II. McCaskey contends that planning in an ambiguous environment largely involves defining a direction and a domain. Some questions to consider, based on this model, include:
 - What is your vision of the possible objectives the program may address? (direction) What are the "must's" the program has to address and the "never's" of which the program should steer clear? (domain)
 - In your program model, what is its primary mission? (direction) What are the primary program functions and the interrelationships of those functions? (domain)
- What is needed is not always popular nor readily accepted by program users or program sponsors. Program credibility must first be established. In such cases, the program developer is best advised to *formalize what is desired and subtly incorporate what is needed*.
- If you expect support, do not speak in foreign tongues. Translate your program model into language that users and sponsors can understand.

STAGE III: DESIGN

Description

The primary learning objective of Stage III for the program developer is to answer the question, "What is realistic?" In other words, "What program approaches have the highest likelihood of success given the environment in which the program must be implemented?" Also, "What program strategies will have the highest benefit-to-cost ratio?" The program development activity that characterizes this stage is strategy design. Whereas Stage I and Stage II provided a data-based conceptual design, Stage III defines what is going to be done. Strategy design involves more than just the definition of activities. It also includes definition of how those activities will fit together and in what sequence in order to translate the theoretical model into concrete action.

Kolb's *convergent* learning style characterizes the primary behaviors that program developers use in Stage III. According to Kolb, convergent learning requires abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. The task involves translating a theoretical model into behavioral strat-

egies. Program strategies translate ideas into action. It is at this stage that logic must pass the first reality test.

Potential users of the program and program sponsors are very important to the program development process at this stage. It is they who can best judge if the program strategy is realistic. They are the experts as to what strategies are likely to work in the program environment because they *are* the program environment. Many conceptually sound program strategies have gone down the tubes because naive program developers did not test the degree of sensitivity and receptivity of potential program users and sponsors. Being right is not enough to guarantee success in the program development world!

At the completion of Stage III, the program developer will have a bridge between theory and practice, the end product being a program strategy. That strategy defines the "what" and "how" of the program.

Issues, Implications, and Other Assorted Practical Tips

- In strategy design, never lose sight of your long-term vision, but be sure to build in short-term, tangible results for both program participants and sponsors.
- Use a conceptual model as a guide for both overall strategy design and that all important component—evaluation design. A good example of such a model is Crites's model of career maturity (Crites, 1973).
- Codesign with those who will pass judgment upon the program. The program developer cannot afford to be the Lone Ranger. Even he had Tonto!
- If you want success, the benefits had better outweigh the costs, and the resources outweigh the obstacles.
- Start small with a pilot that has strong support and a high probability of success. First efforts form lasting impressions.
- Build in a follow-up for each program activity to reinforce results and assess whether those results were utilized in the "real" world.

STAGE IV: IMPLEMENTATION

Description

The primary learning objective of Stage IV is to answer the question, "What steps need to be taken?" Previous stages defined what was desirable, what was possible, and what was realistic. Those stages are considered by most program developers as the exciting, "fun" stages of program development. Stage IV involves the unglamorous—but very important—logistical nuts and bolts of bringing a program into reality. The program development activity involved in this stage is logistical action planning. There needs to be a concrete, detailed game plan that spells "who needs to do what, by when" to ensure that the program content and strategy will be implemented in an effective and efficient manner.

The major tasks involved in this stage, which should be incorporated into the logistical game plan, are as follows:

- publicizing and "marketing" the program activities;
- involving key players;
- collecting and publicizing endorsements from credible supporters and sponsors;
- identifying and negotiating environmental politics and sensitivities;
- identifying and negotiating potential obstacles and impediments;
- identifying or developing necessary resources;
- budgeting and staffing;
- identifying and selecting participants;
- Providing effective physical setting and facilities;
- scheduling;
- contingency planning;
- preparing evaluation tools;
- Defining a "step-by-step who does what by when;" and
- considering a million other things one does not think of until the last minute!

Kolb's *accommodative learning* style includes important behaviors utilized at this stage. According to Kolb (1984), accommodative learning requires a "doer" orientation. This type of learning requires active experimentation and concrete experience. The focus of both of these types of behaviors emphasizes action that will "get things done."

The activities of Stage IV can utilize the help of potential program users and sponsors as catalysts. It is they who are most knowledgeable of how to get things done in the program environment. There is no substitute for experience with and knowledge of the unique, idiocentric characteristics of program environments. Negotiating or getting around "the system" is no easy task. In this stage of program development, the old adage, "it's who you know that counts," holds much truth.

The primary end product of this stage is a logistical action plan. This action plan is the cookbook for implementing the program activities and strategies. It is highly recommended that this cookbook be in written form, particularly if a sizeable team of people are involved in program implementation.

Issues, Implications, and Other Assorted Practical Tips

- Ensure visible endorsement of those who have credibility and influence.
- Involve key players—particularly those who sit in judgment of the program.
- The activities of this stage can be frustrating, time-consuming, and boring. However, these activities have to be done. Much of the shoddiness in program development can be attributed to underemphasizing or taking for granted the tasks of Stage IV.
- "When in doubt, leave it out," does not apply to this stage.
- What works in one place will not necessarily work in another.
- You will need your sense of humor to meet the challenges and frustrations of Stage IV.

STAGE V: EVALUATION REDESIGN

Description

The primary learning objective of Stage V is to find answers to the questions: "What needs to be changed?" and "What should be retained?" Implicit in these questions is the need to redesign the program to improve future efforts. However, redesign must be based on program outcomes as measured by a thorough analysis of the program's evaluation data. Program development, in the truest sense of the term, builds and improves upon what is accomplished. The program development activity that serves as the basis for developmental changes is program evaluation.

The reflective observation and the abstract conceptualization skills of Kolb's *assimilative learning* style will come in handy in the analysis and interpretation of evaluation data in Stage V. The results of these analyses will dictate what stages of the program development process need to be reexamined and modified. Ideally, the overall program development process should be recycled because the stages of the program development model are not mutually exclusive. A change in meeting the objectives of one stage may very well affect the other stages.

The program is not an end in itself. It must provide results for both program users and sponsors. Both users and sponsors serve as important sources of feedback in the program evaluation. Perhaps one of the most important uses of evaluation data is their use as stimuli for discussion with program users and sponsors. They play an important role in determining whether the outcomes of the programs are significant in meeting their needs. It is important that the program developer identify the outcomes of greatest interest to all key players. What is important to program users may not be the most important to program sponsors. Also, outcomes that may intrigue the program developer may get the dreaded "So what?" response from program users and sponsors. Also, sound program evaluation should be considered from the beginning. Potential measures and outcomes should be clearly tied to the objectives and activities of the program that we've established in earlier stages.

The end result of Stage V should be ideas for improving the program. Consequently, program evaluation is both an ending and a beginning of a learning process for the program developer. The program developer who ceases to learn has stopped practicing the craft of program development.

Issues, Implications, and Other Assorted Practical Tips

- Evaluation design involves definition of "who needs what kind of data by when?"
- Use multiple program strategies and multiple evaluation methods. It is better to overkill than to strike out.
- Recycle the wheel. Do not remake it.
- Give evaluation feedback to those who need it—whether they ask for it or not!

- Celebrate/publicize accomplishments.
- There is no such thing as too much follow-up.
- Evolutions are easier than revolutions. Did your program try to take small steps or giant leaps?
- Never take personal credit for program successes. Give the credit to those who helped you.
- Failures are opportunities to learn, not license for self-abuse.

THE IMPACT OF PROGRAM DEVELOPERS' INDIVIDUAL LEARNING STYLES ON THE PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

KOLB'S EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY

Kolb and Plovnick (1977; Kolb, 1984) conceived learning as a four-stage cycle. Experience is the basis for reflective thought. Reflections are organized into hypotheses, theories, and concepts. These hypotheses are then tested in reality, the end result being a new set of experiences from which to recycle the learning process. Implicit in this cycle are four types of learning behaviors:

Concrete experience (CE): The ability to involve oneself without bias in new experiences.

Reflective observation (RO): The ability to observe and reflect upon experiences from multiple perspectives.

Abstract conceptualization (AC): The ability to integrate observations into logical theories.

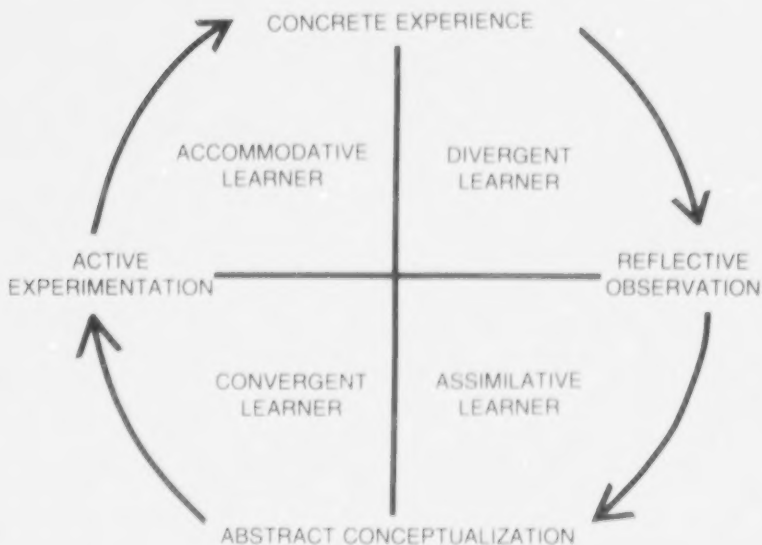
Active experimentation (AE): The ability to use theories to make decisions and solve problems.

Kolb contends the learning cycle is made up of two polar dimensions: concrete experience versus abstract conceptualization and reflective observation versus active experimentation (see diagonals of Figure 1). Although all four sets of behaviors are viewed as necessary to learning, one cannot easily experience (CE) and conceptualize (AC) simultaneously, nor can one act (AE) and reflect (RO) at the same time. One gets in the way of the others.

Kolb further contends that due to hereditary and environmental influences, people tend to develop learning styles that emphasize some learning behaviors over others. His research has identified four statistically prevalent learning styles: divergent, assimilative, convergent, and accommodative. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between learning styles and learning behaviors. Each style tends to emphasize two of the four types of learning behaviors. Diagonal styles tend to emphasize very different learning behaviors, whereas adjacent styles hold one type of learning behavior in common.

Figure 1

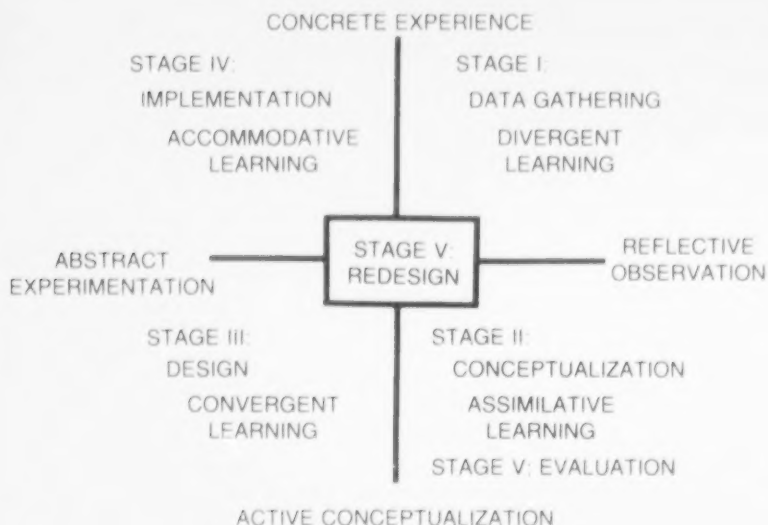
Correspondence of Learning Behaviors and Learning Styles. Adapted from "The Experiential Learning Theory of Career Development" (p. 65-87) by D.A. Kolb and M.S. Plovnick. In J. Van Maanen (Ed.), Organizational Careers: Some New Perspectives, 1977, New York: Wiley. Copyright 1977 by John Wiley & Sons. Adapted by permission.



IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

It is the thesis of this chapter that program development is a learning process, and, to be effective, the program developer must utilize learning abilities. The first four stages of the program development process outlined in this chapter roughly correspond to Kolb's Experiential Learning Model (see Figure 2). Data-gathering (Stage I) relies on the experiential and observational abilities of divergent learning. The visioning and model building of Stage II rely on the conceptual abilities of assimilative learning. The development of a program strategy that is central to Stage III of the program development process relies heavily on the ability to apply theoretical ideas, which is characteristic of convergent learning. The implementation requirements of Stage IV rely on the "how to do" abilities of accommodative learning. Stage V utilizes the analytical abilities of assimilative learning in the evaluation phase of that stage, but subsequent redesign of the program recycles both the program development and learning process. In sum, different stages of the program development process utilize different abilities at different times.

Figure 2
Correspondence of Program Development Stages and Learning Styles



Kolb contends that different people tend to prefer and emphasize different learning styles. Few, if any, are strong in all of the learning styles. Consequently, every program developer brings a unique set of strengths and weaknesses to the program development process. Unfortunately, the tendency is to overemphasize the learning style with which we are most comfortable and "force fit" it on all of the program development stages. Any learning style applied at an inappropriate time can be a liability. For example, the pragmatic, reality-based emphasis of the convergent and accommodative learning styles can be too conservative and restrictive for the creative objectives of Stage I and Stage II. On the other hand, the idealism and creativity of the divergent learning style and the highly rational orientation of the assimilative style can be unrealistic when confronted with the political realities of Stages III and IV.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Now for a rude awakening. In the wonderful world of program development, one must accept the fact that the job is bigger than the person. We all have our deficiencies! Consequently, here are some "words to the wise:"

- Program Developer, know thyself.
- Program Developer, monitor your behavior. Does your behavior reflect what is needed or what you like to do?
- Do what you do best. Use others to do those things you cannot do.

- Force yourself to develop adequate skills in all program development areas. Become excellent in areas that are your strengths.
- Ideally, program development is a team effort and should encompass a team of people with differing but complementary skills.
- Move on or step aside when someone else can better serve the program. Beware of ownership.
- When you move, be prepared to grieve. Letting go is not always easy.

SUMMARY

This chapter has described a five-stage model for the development of adult career programs based on an experiential learning theory. The stages focus on learning the answers to five basic program development questions:

- What needs to be done?
- What is possible?
- What is realistic?
- What steps need to be taken?
- What needs to be retained, and what needs to be changed?

Program development is a process. The questions are permanent; the answers are temporary. The need to learn never ceases.

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CHAPTER 5

Appraising Adults' Career Capabilities: Ability, Interest, and Personality

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In his Model of Career Maturity, Crites (1978, p. 4) made the distinction between career choice *content* and career choice *process* in decision making:

The former encompasses the Consistency of Career Choices and Realism of Career Choices factors in the model (Figure 1). To operationally define these dimensions it is necessary to elicit a career choice from an individual. A question like, "Which occupation do you intend to enter when you have completed your schooling or training" (Crites, 1969, p. 139) is asked, and, if the individual has made a choice, an occupational title, e.g., machinist, copywriter, or dancer, is given in response. This is career choice *content*. In contrast, career choice *process* refers to the variables involved in arriving at a declaration of career choice content. These variables include the group factors of Career Choice Competencies and Career Choice Attitudes in the model of career maturity.

A recent chapter on "Instruments for Assessing Career Development" (Crites, 1984), in the third NVGA commemorative volume, *Designing Careers* (Gysbers, 1984), reviewed contemporary measures of career choice process, such as Crites' (1978) *Career Maturity Inventory* and the Career Pattern Study's (Thompson, Lindeman, Super, Jordaan, & Myers, 1981, 1982) *Career Development Inventory*. This chapter describes and discusses some of the tests and inventories available to appraise adults' capabilities (both intellectual and nonintellectual) for career choice content.

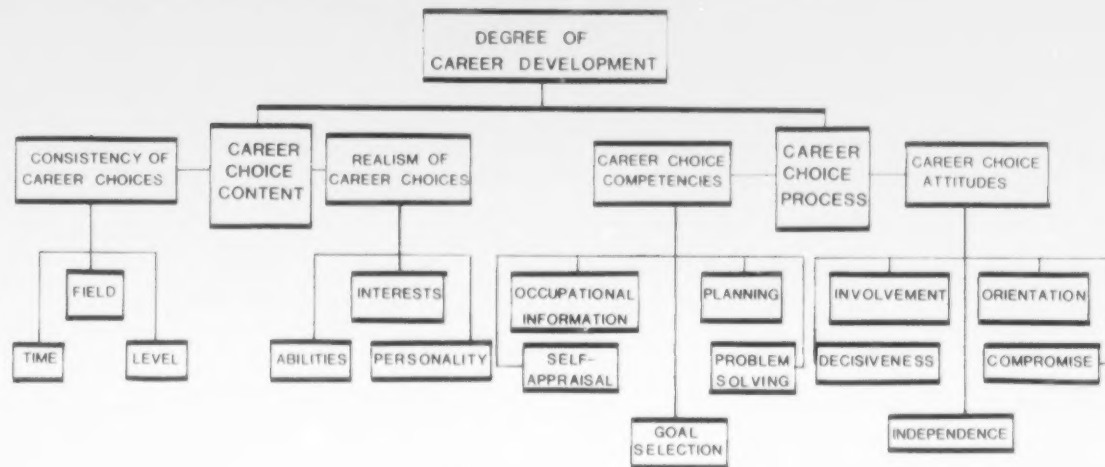
With the increased focus upon *adult* career development during the past decade, well exemplified by this book devoted entirely to the topic, more and more career counselors and career development specialists, particularly in business and community organizations, find themselves confronted with the task of assisting adults in appraising their career capabilities—their abilities, interests, and personality characteristics. Yet, many of these professionals are either unaware of what standardized

Figure 1
A Model of Career Maturity in Adolescence and Adulthood

**GENERAL
FACTOR**

**GROUP
FACTORS**

VARIABLES



measures exist for adult career appraisal, and use none, or they construct homemade surveys and questionnaires (e.g., self-reported skills), that have unknown or uncertain reliability and validity. That there is a need for a review of appropriate tests and inventories for career counseling and group work with adults seems apparent. To identify these assessment instruments, a search was first made for all the measures listed in *TESTS* (Sweetland & Keyser, 1983) that were applicable to adults. Then, the number of references for each of these cited in Buros's (1978) *Eighth Mental Measurement Yearbook* was calculated. Of these, the most extensively researched instruments were selected for review, the assumption being that they would have sufficiently well-documented psychometric characteristics to be useful in career counseling and career development programs.

In addition to these well-established tests and inventories, other less studied but promising instruments are mentioned, the expectation being that users will assess their usefulness for their particular situations (see Sweetland & Keyser, 1983). Certain constraints have been imposed on the selection of the adult appraisal instruments included in this review, however, that are judgmental, in terms of the pragmatics of career counseling practice (Crites, 1981). Experience indicates that some are better than others. This review and critical analysis is, therefore, a *synthesis* of scientific findings on appraisal instruments for adult career capabilities (career choice content) and informed experience with them. Ability tests, including measures of general intelligence, as well as achievement and aptitudes (multifactor), are presented first and are followed by a discussion of vocational interest inventories, with a final section on personality measures. The chapter concludes with presentation of a micro-computer systems approach for appraising adult career capabilities, which has been used extensively in organizational "in-house" career development programs, Private Industry Council (PIC) programs for the unemployed, and outplacement career counseling for released workers.

ABILITY TESTS

There are certain desiderata that ability tests, including general intelligence, achievement, reading, and aptitude, should have for the appraisal of adult career capabilities. Foremost among these is that the test be a *power* measure, that is, *untimed*, because adults beyond ages 25–30 have a decrement in performance under speeded conditions (Super & Crites, 1962). In addition, particularly for intelligence and aptitude tests, they should have evidenced vocational validity, that is, be predictive of occupational level or occupational aptitude patterns (OAPs). Two other, but different, parameters are whether both (a) verbal and nonverbal and (b) group and individual tests are available. Given these specifications, only a few ability tests can be recommended for the appraisal of adult career capabilities. These are classified in Table 1, and then are reviewed in the following discussion.

Table 1
Classification of Recommended Adult Ability Measures by Desiderata

	<i>General Intelligence</i>	<i>Achievement</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Specific Aptitudes</i>
Power	OSPE Wonderlic Beta II	ABLE		
Speeded	Wonderlic Wesman	TABE WRAT	Iowa Nelson-Denny	GATB EAS
Paper-and-Pencil	OSPE		Iowa Nelson-Denny	GATB EAS
Individually Administered Verbal	WAIS-R OSPE Wonderlic Wesman WAIS-R		Iowa Nelson-Denny	(Perf.) GATB EAS
Nonverbal	Beta II WAIS-R (Perf.)			GATB (Perf.)

Intelligence Tests

No one test of general intelligence has all the characteristics desired in such measures for appraising the intellectual functioning of adults. If there is sufficient administration time and a qualified examiner available, then the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scales—Revised (WAIS-R) has much to recommend it, particularly its extensive age norms, which allow the comparison of an adult's score with those of peers (Matarazzo, 1972). It has only modest vocational validity (Super & Crites, 1962), but can yield a good estimate of an adult's probable level of occupational attainment, which corresponds generally to the levels axis in Roe's occupational classification system (Roe, 1956), as well as the DOT ratings of general ability given in Holland's *Dictionary* (Gottfriedson, Holland, & Ogawa, 1984). Another possible test of "g" is the Wonderlic Personnel Test, which is a group paper-and-pencil instrument that can be given under either timed (12 minutes) or untimed conditions. It has had extensive use and validation in employee selection situations, as has the Wesman Personnel Selection Test, a timed (28 minutes) paper-and-pencil measure of the verbal and numerical components in general intelligence. The Ohio State Psychological Examination can also be used with adults, under untimed directions, but appropriate norms for older (than college) age individuals are lacking. Finally, for an excellent untimed, nonverbal assessment of intelligence, the Revised Army Beta Examination (Beta-II) is the choice, having been restandardized for adults in 1974.

Achievement Tests

Although achievement tests are usually associated with school assessment programs, their use with adults has increased in recent years with the introduction of career development workshops in business/industrial organizations and the establishment of Private Industry Council programs for the unemployed. There is often a need to assess level of educational development, particularly with the latter group, to determine whether remedial basic education is indicated before proceeding with job search. TESTS and Buros's MMYB cite three measures of adult achievement: Adult Basic Learning Examination (ABLE), Tests of Adult Basic Education (TABE), and the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT). Of these ABLE has the best-established psychometric properties. It appraises vocabulary, reading comprehension, spelling, arithmetic computation, and problem-solving skills at three different levels: grades 1 to 6, grades 3 to 9, and grades 9 to 12. A short screening test, called SelectABLE (sic), is used to determine which level of testing is appropriate. Tests at Levels I and II take 2 hours, whereas Level III requires 3 hours and 25 minutes to administer. Norms expressed as percentile ranks and stanines are reported for all levels. The TABE also includes tests of vocabulary, mathematics, and language at different levels, but the highest is grade 9, although no norms are reported for adults. It is simply an edited version of the 1970 California Achievement Tests (CAT), which were developed for the elementary and secondary school population. The TABE, therefore, is not really a measure of *adult* achievement. The WRAT offers the advantage of measuring many of the same variables, but expresses scores

in age, rather than grade-equivalents, which is obviously much more appropriate for adults (cf., WAIS-R).

Reading Tests

If in addition to the reading subtests of achievement batteries a more comprehensive appraisal is needed, probably the best available reading test for adults, of which there are few, is the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (ISRT). The Buros's (1978, p. 1197) review by Filby concludes that the 1973 edition is: "the product of a careful, long-term developmental effort. It contains interesting subtests, with a variety of scoring options. It is well-packaged and presented. The Guide for Interpretation and Use is a model of thoroughness and clarity." The subtests measure vocabulary, comprehension, directed reading (work-study skills), and reading efficiency (rate with comprehension), although directed reading is not included for Level III, which is appropriate for adults. Contrary to the recommended uses of the subtests, Hakstian (Buros, 1978, p. 1199) concludes from a review of subtest intercorrelations that the ISRT is *not* multifactorial: "Quite clearly, one and only one common factor accounts for the [above] correlations. For this reason, it is difficult to envision the ISRT—or its competitors—as having much *diagnostic utility*" (italics in original). This conclusion must be qualified for several reasons, as far as adults are concerned. First, the data were on seventh graders; second, most factor analytic methods yield only *one* principal factor; and, third, for adults as compared with seventh graders, developmental age may make the subtests more independent statistically. Certainly, with an individual client, given *reliable* difference scores among subtests, they *may* have diagnostic significance. The only other alternative is the Nelson-Denny Reading Test, which has had a hallowed history, with its comprehension, vocabulary, and reading rate subtests, but again the question is raised: How *independent* are they? Both the ISRT and the Nelson-Denny are timed, which may be an exogenous variable accounting for the well-established high correlations between rate and comprehension. Perhaps someone will construct a reading test for adults that is untimed—why is *time* per se so important. It is the time one puts into reading, not reading time (rate), that seems to make the difference in learning.

Aptitude Tests

Clearly, the best documented and most widely applicable aptitude tests for adults are in the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB). Not only were they developed on and for adults (Super & Crites, 1962), but they have an extensive "Occupational Aptitude Pattern" (OAP) database, which 2 years ago was extended to 12,000 occupations by Hunter (1983), using the new techniques of validity generalization. There are now 66 OAPs that encompass most of the distinct occupations in the world-of-work (Droege & Padgett, 1979), and Crites (1984) [see below] has designed a microcomputer system that prints out on a programmed interpretative form (the Career Decision Maker) all the OAPs a person is qualified for

in less than 1 minute—no more visual or graphic profile comparisons necessary by the career counselor. There is a major drawback with the GATB, however, because it is tightly controlled by local employment services and can be administered only by them or certificated examiners. As a result, this highly developed instrument is also highly restricted in its availability. Fortunately, there is an equally useful alternate, although it does not include performance tests as the GATB does. The Employee Aptitude Survey (EAS) is a battery of 10 short but reliable and valid tests of such variables as verbal reasoning, numerical ability, spatial visualization, and visual speed and accuracy. The occupational norms are broadly based but not to the extent of the GATB. In developing the Career Decision Maker, however, which also includes a ranking of expressed interests, Crites (1984) equated the EAS to the GATB, with the exception of the latter's performance measures, so that the OAP database can be used with both batteries. Thus, the EAS, supplemented with performance tests such as the Purdue Pegboard and the Purdue Mechanical Adaptability Test, as needed, gives the career specialist a viable option to the GATB.

VOCATIONAL INTERESTS

In the discussion that follows, the focus is upon vocational interests, both expressed and inventoried, but measures of work needs and job satisfaction are also reviewed. For a comprehensive appraisal of adult career capabilities, it is often useful to assess needs that are satisfied in the work environment, as well as vocational interests.

Expressed Interests

For many years simply asking a person what they were interested in, such as "Which occupation(s) do you plan to enter when you have completed your education or training" (Crites, 1969), was considered unreliable and, therefore, invalid for predicting the eventual occupation engaged in (e.g., Berdie, 1950; Darley & Hagenah, 1955; Super & Crites, 1962). Since the late 1960s, however, when Holland and Lutz (1968) compared expressed interests with the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), regard for the predictive validity of expressed interests has increased greatly. The Holland and Lutz study indicated a much higher "hit rate" for expressed interests than the VPI against a common criterion of career choice 8 months later. With an interval of 3 years, Borgen and Seling (1978) essentially replicated this finding using the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). And, in a review of relevant research on the comparative predictive validity of expressed and inventoried interests, Dolliver (1969, pp. 103-104) concluded:

The predictive validity of expressed interests is at least as great as the predictive validity of SVIB. In no study where direct comparison was made (Dyer, 1939; Enright & Pinneau, 1955; McArthur & Stevens, 1955) was the SVIB as accurate as the expressed interests in predicting occupation engaged in. . . . There is no evidence to show that the SVIB is superior to expressed interests.

The implication of these results and conclusions certainly is that expressed interests should be elicited in any thorough appraisal of adult career capabilities and that they should be given at least as much weight as inventoried interests.

Inventoried Interests

The question immediately arises, then, why administer interest inventories, given that expressed interests are more predictive? There are at least two answers to this question. First, some individuals want to take an interest inventory to confirm (or reality test) their expressed interests. When inventoried and expressed interests are the same, their combined predictive efficiency is considerably greater than that of either separately, but when they differ, expressed interests are, of course, the better predictor in most cases (Borgen & Seling, 1978). Second, about 20–25% of adults in the career decision-making process are undecided and therefore have no expressed interests. For these individuals, interest inventories serve the very worthwhile purpose of stimulating them to explore areas of interest similarity.

At the professional, semiprofessional, and managerial/white collar occupational levels, the most widely used interest inventory is the Strong, Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII), but the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (KOIS) is also highly recommended. Interpretation of the SCII is sometimes complicated by the percentages of Likes, Indifferences, and Dislikes in response to it, particularly if the latter is high, because the General Occupational Theme and Basic Interest Scales are scored +1 for Likes and -1 for Dislikes. A strong Dislike response tendency produces, therefore, low scores on these scales, but also high scores on some occupational scales such as Mathematician that are keyed to a high percentage of Dislikes (the so-called "doubting" attitude of the scientist). The SCII also poses problems in the interpretation of cognate male/female scales when an individual scores higher on the opposite sex scale (Crites, 1978). The KOIS, on the other hand, avoids this difficulty because of its different construction (occupation vs. occupation as compared with occupation vs. in-general groups), but it is often awkward to explain Lambda scores to clients without a lengthy explanation that interferes with the test interpretation process (Crites, 1982).

At the nonprofessional occupational levels, the best available measure is the Career Assessment Inventory (CAI), which is formatted after the SCII but with occupations largely within the semiskilled range. Some of the same problems in interpretation occur with it as with the SCII, particularly if response percentages are extreme. At the lower levels in the occupational hierarchy, there has been no inventory that is directly applicable to unskilled and some semiskilled jobs. As Strong (1943) pointed out many years ago and Darley and Hagenah (1955) reiterated, *vocational* interests at these levels are largely undifferentiable. Rather, it is preference for different work environments or job conditions that is important to individuals. Crites (in process) is currently constructing an inventory of these preferences that assesses such dimensions as indoor-outdoor, clean-dirty, and noisy-quiet. This type of interest inventory has particular potential usefulness with unskilled and unemployed adults.

Work Needs

The extensive and long-term research of the Work Adjustment Project at the University of Minnesota, under the leadership of Dawis & Lofquist (1984), has produced several instruments to measure the variables in their "Theory of Work Adjustment," not the least of which is the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire. It measures 20 needs, which are grouped into six general categories of work values: Achievement, Comfort, Status, Altruism, Safety, Autonomy. Also listed with each need are the corresponding "Work-Related Reinforcers" that satisfy them on-the-job. The rationale for the MIQ is that individuals gain greater job satisfaction, and ultimately accrue greater tenure, if their needs are fulfilled by the appropriate occupational reinforcer patterns (ORPs). The MIQ profile indicates high and low needs that are interpreted according to these patterns. Reliability and validity data on the MIQ are limited but encouraging. The MIQ's careful development and theoretical significance certainly justify its widespread use in appraising the career capabilities of adults.

Job Satisfaction

There are two major measures of job satisfaction: the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank (JSB) Form 5, and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). The first of these, the JSB, provides a *global* assessment of job satisfaction, based upon the individual's overall "hedonic tone" toward work (Crites, 1969). Four 7-point scale items ask workers how much they like their jobs, whether they want to change their work, and so forth. The total score is an expression of job satisfaction in relation to dissatisfaction. In contrast, the JDI uses the *summative* method to elicit satisfaction with five different facets of the work situation: (1) work on present job, (2) present pay, (3) opportunities for promotion, (4) supervision on present job, and (5) people on your present job. The assumption is that a worker can be differentially satisfied with these various components of the work environment, but provision is also made with the JDI for summing the part-scores to obtain a total job satisfaction score, which correlates highly with the JSB.

PERSONALITY INVENTORIES

Unlike ability tests and vocational interest measures, the items of which directly sample the context of the world-of-work, personality inventories come from a different tradition. There is no available inventory of *work* personality. Rather, there are several instruments, constructed for other purposes, that have been applied to the assessment of personality in the work environment. Their validity for the appraisal of the adult work personality, therefore, is indirect at best. But, some of them have demonstrated usefulness for career counseling and career workshops with adults, and they are reviewed and critically evaluated here. There are four personality inventories that have been sufficiently researched for career purposes to include in this discussion: (1) the California Psychological Inventory; (2) the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule; (3) the Myers-

Briggs Type Indicator, and, (4) the Sixteen Personality Factor Inventory (16 PF).

California Personality Inventory (CPI)

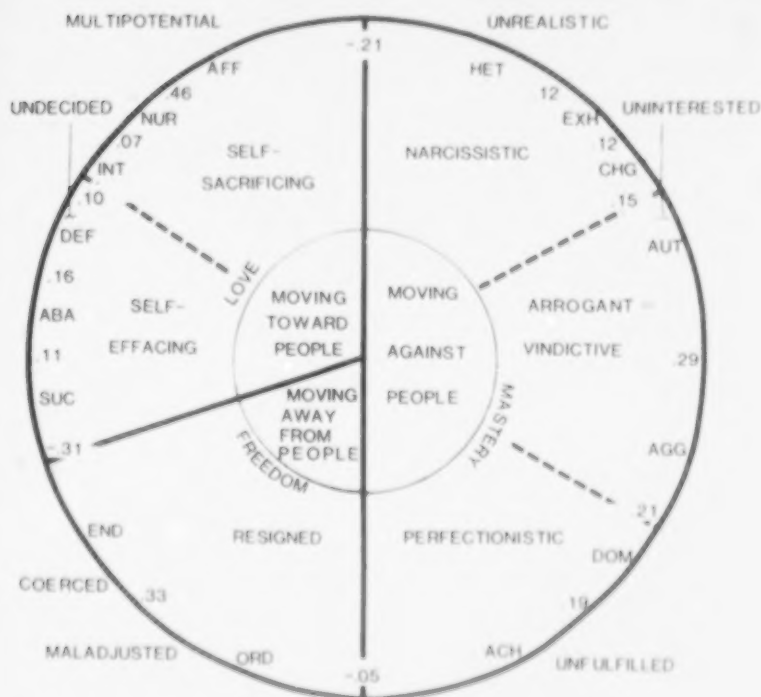
Of the personality measures available for assessing adult personality, the CPI is probably the most appropriate and the most extensively researched. Known as the "normal" MMPI, it includes 200 items from the latter, but they (along with the remainder in the item pool) were standardized and validated to measure "folk concepts" of personality, such as dominance (Do) and good impression (Gi). These dimensions of the normal personality that factor analysis indicates are the principal ones (Crites, Bechtoldt, Goodstein, & Heilbrun, 1961) focus upon how individuals deal with interpersonal relations, a behavioral domain that is critical to adult career adjustment. The findings of many studies (Crites, 1969, 1982) establish that more employees lose their jobs because of problems in interpersonal relations than for any other reason. In other words, coping with others on-the-job (superiors, subordinates, co-workers) is more important in career success than competence for job performance, at least above a minimal level. The CPI offers an objective measurement of interpersonal areas that might directly impinge upon job adjustment. Low scores on CPI scales in both "Class I. Measures of Poise, Ascendancy, Self-Assurance, and Interpersonal Adequacy" and "Class II. Measures of Socialization, Responsibility, Intrapersonal Values, and Character" are often diagnostic of potential difficulties in human relations at the workplace. Two-scale analyses of these measures have also been related to discriminating self-descriptive adjectives, and means and standard deviations for various occupational groups are given in the *Manual* (1975).

Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS)

In contrast to the CPI, the EPPS was constructed to measure variables from an explicit personality theory—Murray's (1938) system of needs. The 15 need scales of the EPPS (e.g., Autonomy, Dominance, Order, etc.) are not organized, however, into a readily interpretable conceptual schema. To provide such a framework, Crites (1981) arranged the needs into a circumplex that defines Horney's (1945) major orientations in interpersonal relations: (a) moving toward people, (b) moving against people, and (c) moving away from people. Used with these constructs, the EPPS gains increased diagnostic significance for identifying possible human relations problems of adult workers. There is growing evidence, for example, that employees frequently lose their jobs more because they are nonassertive than because they are aggressive. In the circumplex (Figure 2), the EPPS Abasement and Deference scales define a self-effacing personality that may experience interpersonal problems on-the-job because of nonassertiveness and an indiscriminate tendency to move toward people. Other configurations of scores identify orientations that are likely to create different job adjustment problems. In interpreting these patterns, it is important to remember that the EPPS is ipsative, in other words, has a "forced-choice" response format, and consequently only high and

Figure 2

EPSS Circumplex for Appraisal of Work-Related Interpersonal Orientations. From Career Counseling: Models, Methods, and Materials (p. 100) by J.O. Crites, 1981, New York: McGraw-Hill. Copyright 1981 by McGraw-Hill, Inc. Reprinted by permission.



low scores *within* the individual should be reported. Normative interpretations are not appropriate.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

During the past decade, after a 20-year hiatus, interest in the MBTI, concurrent with a revival of Jungian psychology, has increased, and there is accruing research on it, as well as new applications in business and industry (Hirsch, 1984). The MBTI was originally designed to operationally define the major constructs in Jung's theory of personality. It yields scores on four bipolar dimensions representing these variables: (1) Extraversion-Introversion; (2) Thinking-Feeling; (3) Intuition-Sensing; and, (4) Judgment-Perception. From combinations of scores on these basic personality orientations, types are derived that indicate the

individual's dominant modes of interacting with the world. These obviously are relevant to the work environment and suggest how an adult worker might best fit into a compatible occupational role (Hirsch, 1984). To use the MBTI for the appraisal of adult career capabilities, however, it is essential to have a thorough understanding of the Jungian concepts it measures, because its usefulness is largely "clinical," although there are studies of it for different occupational groups. The Center for Applications of Psychological Type in Gainesville, Florida, offers the relevant training for professionals through a variety of seminars and workshops and also holds an annual national conference.

Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF)

This instrument is included here because it is widely known and has norms for over 50 occupational groups, as well as regression equations for predicting job performance criteria. The 16PF nevertheless has some serious shortcomings (Buros, 1978). First, despite its factorial construction, and its name, there is considerable disagreement from one study to another on exactly how many factors there are in the 16PF—some results indicate fewer, others more. Second, the factors measured by presumably equivalent forms have average intercorrelations of cognate scales only in the .50s—hardly support for equivalence. Third, the internal consistencies of the factor scores are also low, again averaging in the .50s. And, fourth, although there are numerous validity studies of the 16PF, there is no consistent pattern of results that support either its convergent or divergent validity. In conclusion, then, if the 16PF is used with adults, for whom extensive norms are available, caution should be exercised in making other than descriptive statements (i.e., this individual is high, average, or low on the several scales).

A MICROCOMPUTER SYSTEM FOR APPRAISING ADULTS' CAREER CAPABILITIES

With the advent of the microcomputer in recent years and its widespread availability to measurement and counseling professionals, unlimited possibilities have opened up for formulating a systems approach to educational and vocational assessment, both intellectual and nonintellectual. In the past, career counselors and personnel managers have had to rely upon largely subjective procedures for comparing an individual's test scores with profiles of traits required by occupations. With over 12,000 different occupations in the world-of-work, the best that could be done was to make general judgments about occupational "fitness." Usually, a visual comparison of the client's or employee's test scores with rationally derived occupational profiles, such as the Revised Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales and Worker Trait Requirements for 4,000 Jobs was made. Seldom was it possible to derive quantitative indices of similarity between person and position.

The microcomputer has made possible such quantitative comparisons, however, although it is far from having realized its full potential. One problem has been that most computerized test interpretations are printed

out in lengthy, and often discursive, narratives. One interpretive printout for the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory actually runs 29 fanfold pages. Not only is it difficult to read, often being loaded with psychometric jargon, but it inhibits the test interpretation process, particularly in career counseling. Obviously, what is needed is a test report form that can be printed from the microcomputer and that can be easily interpreted, in either individual or group career counseling sessions. Another problem, even more critical for the efficacy of the interpretative process, is the passive-receptive mode of the narrative printouts. Much more desirable would be an active-participative interaction between the individual and the test report. Such a mode should be based upon a programmed instructional design that involves the client in the test interpretation.

In response to what seems to be a clear need for a microcomputer system that interprets test results in a meaningful and interactive way, a model was formulated that not only addresses these problems but also relates the testing process to assessment and career development theory, which has also been lacking in most computerized approaches to test interpretation. Figure 3 graphically depicts a career-counseling system designed to meet these specifications. It represents two parallel levels of discourse: "Theory" and "Testing," both of which are further delineated into "Career Choice Process" and "Career Choice Content." Although the former is not discussed in this chapter (see Crites, 1984, cited earlier), it is included for the sake of completeness to give a comprehensive overview of the entire theory and testing model.

On the Theory level, career choice process has been conceptualized as involving certain Attitudes and Competencies that must be sufficiently mature for an individual to make a realistic career choice (content). The attitudes of involvement, independence, orientation, compromise, and decisiveness are more connative or dispositional in nature, whereas the competencies of self-appraisal, occupational information, goal selection, planning, and problem solving are cognitive capabilities (Crites, 1978). On the Testing level, these career choice process variables have been measured by the Career Readiness Inventory (CRI), which is a wide-range measure (grades 9 to 12, adult) of attitudes and competencies derived from 25 years of research on the Career Maturity Inventory (CMI; Crites, 1978, 1984). The CRI can be either hand- or machine-scored, and profiled and interpreted with a self-administered booklet called the *Career Developer*, which is based upon programmed instructional principles. If scores are high enough (above statistically established cut-offs), the individual is presumably mature enough in career choice process to proceed to career choice content. If not, then further intervention (individual or group career guidance) is indicated.

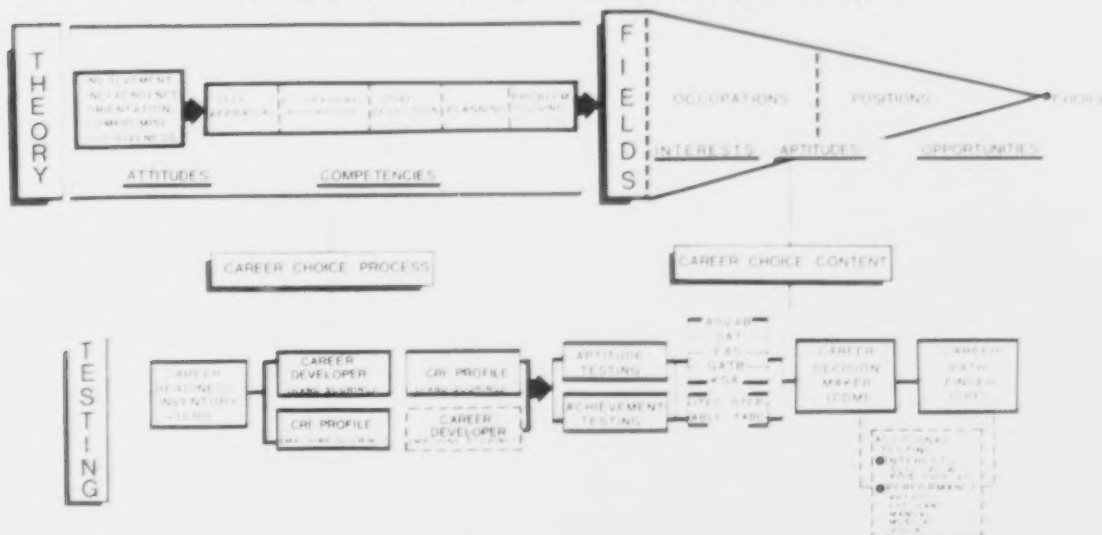
On the Theory level, arriving at career choice content involves what has been termed the "exclusion process." Choices are progressively made from broad Fields through Occupations to eventually Positions by eliminating career options the individual dislikes. These negative decisions are based upon an appraisal of interests, aptitudes, opportunities, and a variety of other personal and environmental factors. On the Testing level, the individual takes achievement tests, multifactor aptitude batteries, interest inventories, and other measures to assess manual dex-

Figure 3

A Systems Approach to Career Counseling

CRITES CAREER COUNSELING SYSTEM

CAREER DEVELOPMENT-EXPLORATORY STAGE



terity and special talent (artistic and musical), if needed, to supplement the overall educational and vocational assessment procedure.

Protocols from these tests and measures are then processed on the microcomputer system, which consists of an NCS Sentry 3000 Scanner, an IBM PC-XT, and a compatible printer. Answer sheets are scanned by the Sentry 3000 and item responses fed into the IBM PC XT for scoring. For the multifactor aptitude batteries, scores are compared with the extensive General Aptitude Test Battery database for Occupational Aptitude Patterns (OAPs), and those for which the individual is qualified are printed out on the Career Decision Maker (CDM). The CDM (Figure 4) is a programmed test interpretation form that takes the individual, step by step, through a survey of expressed-ranked interests, using Holland's RIASEC taxonomy; aptitude score presentation in relation to Level of Educational Development; and a synthesis of choices, interests, general intelligence, and special aptitudes (OAPs) on the "Career Choice Chart."

The chart is cross-referenced to the *Guide for Occupational Exploration* (GOE), published by the United States Employment Service, and to the *Career Path Finder* (CPF), the last component in the system. The CPF lists occupations indexed in the GOE, classified by RIASEC category, and provides charts for planning education or training over a 5-year period for the individual's two most preferred career choices, taking into consideration interests, intelligence, special aptitudes, and other personal social characteristics. Both the CDM and CPF have been used in individual and group career counseling with highly positive results. They are applicable to adults in organizational career development programs, outplacement workshops for dislocated workers, and employment services. Because of the systems approach used, implemented with the scanner-microcomputer-printer in-line processing, and the programmed instructional forms designed for active involvement and personal understanding, the delivery base for this career counseling model is extensive and comprehensive.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented a review of ability, interest, and personality appraisal instruments that may be used in the career counseling of adults. The instruments presented represent both an objective review of scientific findings and the subjective experience of the author with the instruments. The instruments discussed represent those which the author considers the most pragmatic for career counseling practice. Readers are encouraged to continue the ongoing critical search for the most useful and scientifically sound tools for their professional practice.

Figure 4
Career Decision Maker

CAREER DECISION MAKER

INTRODUCTION

CAREER DECISION MAKING is a 3 step process (→) based upon your APTITUDES, INTERESTS, and CHOICES. From the tests you recently took, this form gives you information about your GENERAL APTITUDE as well as your SPECIAL APTITUDES in relation to many occupations. It also surveys your INTERESTS and CHOICES and relates them to your APTITUDES as a basis for making career decisions.

It emphasizes making career decisions based upon ALL your capabilities and characteristics. Consider your hobbies, work experience, recreational activities, and other resources. Also explore training programs and further education necessary to qualify for the careers you choose. Consider not only possible careers for the present but also the future. NOW, turn this page over and rank your INTERESTS (→) first.

STEPS IN CHOICE

Step
1 Rank your
INTERESTS

Step
2 Know your
APTITUDES

Step
3 Make your
CHOICE



1 INTERESTS

The 1ST STEP in making a career choice is to identify your interests in different career fields. Your interests consist of your attitudes or what you LIKE to do. Six broad areas of interests are defined to the right. Then, decide the major focus of the work in each field, the characteristics of people who work in each field, and the nature of the work in each field and where it is usually performed. Read each description and decide how closely you would fit into that career field. Would you enjoy the work, are you similar to the workers, and do the working conditions appeal to you? The more your interests match those of a career field, the greater your chances of staying in it and being satisfied with it. After reading the descriptions of the career fields, rank them according to your preferences, following the directions below. (A) where it says INTEREST RANKINGS.

INTEREST RANKINGS

Rank your interests in the six career fields from high to low. Write a 1 in the column that means you like this best and the least a 6. Do the same for each field and write in a 1 to 6 for the field you like best.

R **ROUTINE** involves the same work every day. The workers in these fields are usually trained. They work long hours, usually with few breaks. They are often outdoors and have a lot of physical activity. They are usually paid less than other workers. They are usually in a factory or office.

I **INTERESTING** involves the study of science, technology, or business. The workers in these fields are usually well educated. They work long hours, usually with few breaks. They are often indoors and have a lot of physical activity. They are usually paid more than other workers. They are usually in a factory or office.

A **ARTISTIC** involves the study of art, music, or design. The workers in these fields are usually well educated. They work long hours, usually with few breaks. They are often indoors and have a lot of physical activity. They are usually paid more than other workers. They are usually in a factory or office.

S **SALES** involves the study of business. The workers in these fields are usually well educated. They work long hours, usually with few breaks. They are often indoors and have a lot of physical activity. They are usually paid more than other workers. They are usually in a factory or office.

E **ENTERPRENEURIAL** involves the study of business. The workers in these fields are usually well educated. They work long hours, usually with few breaks. They are often indoors and have a lot of physical activity. They are usually paid more than other workers. They are usually in a factory or office.

C **CONVENTIONAL** involves the study of business. The workers in these fields are usually well educated. They work long hours, usually with few breaks. They are often indoors and have a lot of physical activity. They are usually paid more than other workers. They are usually in a factory or office.

R	I	A	S	E	C

Now go on to the next page and rank your interests.



2 APTITUDES

The 2ND STEP in making a career choice is assessing your aptitudes for further education, specific occupational preparation, and different occupations. Your aptitudes give you an estimate of what you CAN do. Reported below are combinations of your test scores (called composites) which can give you an idea of (1) what you might

expect your level of Educational Development to be, and (2) which Occupational Aptitudes you may have. Your actual score is reported where it says "T Score." Since scores are not perfect, however, the range you score falls in most of the time is indicated by the band of "XXXXXX's."

LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

How far you go in school is called your level of Educational Development (ED). There are four levels which are defined below. DECIDE how far you can go with your GENERAL APTITUDE as well as study habits, motivation, financial support, etc.

GENERAL APTITUDE

T SCORE	75	60	45	30	15	0	-10
ED LEVELS	1	2	3	4			

4

College or
University
(4 years or more)

Use logic and abstract concepts in thinking.
Study advanced mathematics or statistics.
Read literature or scientific journals.
Write books and use theory.

3

College
(3 years)

Use logical principles or scientific method.
Apply algebra or statistics in problem solving.
Read literature or scientific journals.
Learn persuasive communication in educated speech.

2

Business
technical school
(1-2 years)

Apply principles of bookkeeping, navigation, wiring, etc.
Use geometry, algebra, or shop mathematics.
Learn drawing or mechanical drafting.
Study applied physics (for example, mechanical).

1

High School
(4 years or more)

Follow written or oral instructions.
Use common sense understanding.
Read manuals, rules, or instructions.
Make computations and calculations.

The higher your GENERAL APTITUDE score the more you expect to complete advanced education at ED level 4, and the greater the chance you will receive occupational training or enter occupations at levels 3 or 4. The Occupational Aptitude Patterns at ED level 1 are the lowest composite scores reported, and are considered the lowest of many attempts at defining what your GENERAL APTITUDE score will be.

OCCUPATIONAL APTITUDE FACTORS

Each of the 10 Occupational Aptitude Factors is defined below. Each factor is a composite of several aptitudes. The higher your FACTOR SCORE the greater your aptitudes in the areas of the aptitudes which make up the factor. Your actual score is reported where it says "T Score." Since scores are not perfect, however, the range you score falls in most of the time is indicated by the band of "XXXXXX's."

VERBAL

Verbal aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with words. Verbal aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with words.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

NUMERICAL

Numerical aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with numbers. Numerical aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with numbers.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

SPATIAL

Spatial aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with spatial concepts. Spatial aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with spatial concepts.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

CLERICAL

Clerical aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with clerical concepts. Clerical aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with clerical concepts.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

FORM RECEPTION

Form reception aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with form reception concepts. Form reception aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with form reception concepts.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

MOTOR COORDINATION

Motor coordination aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with motor coordination concepts. Motor coordination aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with motor coordination concepts.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

FINGER DEXTERITY

Finger dexterity aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with finger dexterity concepts. Finger dexterity aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with finger dexterity concepts.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

MANUAL DEXTERITY

Manual dexterity aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with manual dexterity concepts. Manual dexterity aptitudes include the ability to understand, use, and communicate with manual dexterity concepts.

T SCORE

75 60 45 30 15 0 -10

Each Occupational Aptitude Factor is defined below. Each factor is a composite of several aptitudes. The higher your FACTOR SCORE the greater your aptitudes in the areas of the aptitudes which make up the factor. Your actual score is reported where it says "T Score." Since scores are not perfect, however, the range you score falls in most of the time is indicated by the band of "XXXXXX's."



IF YOU HAVE ONE OR MORE CAREER CHOICES—OCCUPATIONS YOU MIGHT ENTER WITH OR WITHOUT FURTHER TRAINING—LIST THEM BELOW.

After you finish charting your career choice on this page, compare the career choices you selected with the occupations suggested by your chart. Sometimes they are the same, sometimes different. If they are different, you may want to change them to agree more with your aptitudes and interests.

LED	CAREER LEVELS	OPEN AT
4 Senior Manager or Executive Director	At this level, you have significant responsibility for the success of the organization. You are responsible for the overall direction and strategy of the organization, and for the performance of the entire organization. You are responsible for the financial health of the organization, and for the overall well-being of the organization.	120-150
3 Manager or Director	At this level, you have significant responsibility for the success of the organization. You are responsible for the overall direction and strategy of the organization, and for the performance of the entire organization. You are responsible for the financial health of the organization, and for the overall well-being of the organization.	110
2 Executive Manager or Director	At this level, you have significant responsibility for the success of the organization. You are responsible for the overall direction and strategy of the organization, and for the performance of the entire organization. You are responsible for the financial health of the organization, and for the overall well-being of the organization.	100
1 High School or Bachelor's Degree	At this level, you have significant responsibility for the success of the organization. You are responsible for the overall direction and strategy of the organization, and for the performance of the entire organization. You are responsible for the financial health of the organization, and for the overall well-being of the organization.	90

3 CHOICE

CAREER FIELDS Career fields are broad groupings of occupations with a few common interests. The broadest career fields are social, health, business, and science. Career fields in the health care sector include health care occupations and health occupations. Health occupations are found in several different career fields, such as health care occupations, health care occupations, and health care occupations. Health care occupations are found in several different career fields, such as health care occupations, health care occupations, and health care occupations.

GEN ASP	REALISTIC	INVESTIGATIVE	ARTISTIC	SOCIAL	ENTERPRISING	CONVENTIONAL
100-90						
80						
60						
40						
20-10						
0-10	R	I	A	S	E	C
0-10	25-34 IN. ME	35-44	55-64	75-84	95-104	115

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CHAPTER 6

Counseling Adults for Career Change

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The purpose of this chapter is to explore counseling approaches for assisting adults in managing their career changes or transitions. Here, a general model of the helping process will be presented. Next, developing and utilizing coping skills will be discussed. Then, career development skills for negotiating career transitions will be delineated.

THE HELPING PROCESS

In order to discuss strategies for teaching coping skills to career changers, it is useful to review a general model of the helping process. This model is useful in many different counseling formats. The stages described are typical of the process, but they do not always occur in this exact sequence.

Building a Relationship

Initially, the goal of the counseling process is to form a positive relationship with the person seeking help. Because it is often difficult for adults to seek help, it is important to respect the courage and trust involved in asking for help. A counselor can encourage mutual trust and respect by being warm, empathetic, and genuine. Respect is also conveyed by careful listening, eye contact, speaking in the same language style as the other person, and allowing the expression of a wide range of affect and beliefs. Respect for the person is given when the counselor identifies, supports, and validates the efforts a client has made to solve his or her problems.

Identifying the Problem

The second stage of counseling involves identifying and clarifying the problem that the person experiences. In this stage, the counselor explores the presenting problem and seeks to learn the personalized meaning of the problem to the client. It is often useful to begin with a general question, such as, "What brings you to counseling at this time?" If the person responds vaguely, it is helpful to ask whether there was a particular event that made the person decide to call to make a counseling appointment. Such events provide concrete experiences of frustration that can help clarify the present problem.

It is also helpful to learn about other aspects of the person's life. Learning about satisfactions and dissatisfactions in other life roles and about styles of coping with previous transitions can help the counselor and client explore the strengths and weaknesses in coping skills. This information is useful also in making a mutual assessment of whether this transition is primarily a career transition or reflects other developmental issues. The person and counselor can then discuss the appropriate counseling to be utilized (i.e., individual, group, marital, and family counseling), as well as the client's expectations.

Facilitating Change

The third stage of counseling involves facilitating change. In this stage the person can identify, develop, and utilize new types of coping skills. Some people benefit by learning general transition skills, whereas others need mostly career-related skills. These coping strategies are presented later in this chapter.

Terminating Counseling

The last stage of counseling is termination where accomplishments are summarized and future plans are formulated. The termination process can be phased out by less frequent meetings, and clients can be encouraged to make greater use of their own support systems. Groups often schedule follow-up meetings and may structure a "buddy system" of mutual support for a specified period of time.

DEVELOPING AND UTILIZING COPING SKILLS

The process of coping successfully with career transitions is facilitated by broad, flexible coping skills for managing life transitions. In this section various coping skills and strategies for assessing and teaching them will be described. It is important to match coping skills to the client's needs.

Basic Coping Skills for Managing Transitions

Although it is impossible to describe all forms of effective coping methods, some broad coping skills have been proposed that seem useful across a variety of transitions (Brammer & Abrego, 1981). The taxonomy listed

in Table 1 can be useful in formulating therapeutic interventions and in designing groups for persons in transition. Certainly other types of useful coping skills have been mentioned; however, those listed in Table 1 are emphasized as particularly useful to people in career transitions.

Table 1
Level 1 Basic Coping Skills for Managing Transitions

-
1. Skills in perceiving and responding to transitions.
 - 1.1 The person mobilizes a personal style of responding to change. He or she—
 - 1.11 Accepts the proposition that problematic situations constitute a normal part of life and that it is possible to cope with most of these situations effectively. (Perceived control over one's life)
 - 1.12 Recognizes the importance of describing problematic situations accurately. (Problem definition)
 - 1.13 Recognizes the values and limitations of feelings as cues to evaluate a change event. (Feelings description)
 - 1.14 Inhibits the tendency either to act impulsively or to do nothing when confronted with a problematic situation. (Self-control)
 - 1.2 The person identifies his or her current coping style. (Style of responding to change)
 2. Skills for assessing, developing, and utilizing external support systems.
 - 2.1 The person can assess an external support system. He or she can—
 - 2.11 Identify his or her emotional needs during times of transition.
 - 2.12 Identify people in his or her life who provide for personal needs.
 - 2.13 Describe a personal support network in terms of physical and emotional proximity.
 - 2.2 The person can develop a personal network. He or she can—
 - 2.21 Seek sources (groups, organizations, locales) of potential support persons.
 - 2.22 Apply social skills to cultivate persons to meet identified needs.
 - 2.3 The person can utilize an established support network. He or she can—
 - 2.31 Develop strategies for spending time with persons considered most helpful.
 - 2.32 Apply skills for utilizing persons in his or her network when a transition is anticipated or arrives.

Table 1 (Continued)

3. Skills for assessing, developing, and utilizing internal support systems.
 - 3.1 The person can assess the nature and strength of positive and negative self-regarding attitudes. He or she can—
 - 3.11 Identify personal strengths.
 - 3.12 Identify negative self-descriptive statements as well as the assumptions and contextual cues which arouse such statements.
 - 3.2 The person can develop positive self-regard attitudes. He or she can—
 - 3.21 Affirm personal strengths.
 - 3.22 Convert negative self-descriptions into positive descriptive statements when the data and criteria so warrant.
 - 3.3 The person can utilize his or her internal support system in a transition. He or she can—
 - 3.31 Construe life transitions as personal growth opportunities.
 - 3.32 Identify tendencies to attribute personal deficiencies as causative factors in distressful transitions.
4. Skills for reducing emotional and physiological distress. He or she is able to—
 - 4.1 Practice self-relaxation responses.
 - 4.2 Apply strategies to control over-stimulation under stimulation.
 - 4.3 Express verbally feelings associated with his or her experience of transition.
5. Skills for planning and implementing change.
 - 5.1 The person can analyze discrepancies between existing and desired conditions.
 - 5.2 The person exercises positive planning for new options. To the best of his or her abilities, the person—
 - 5.21 Thoroughly canvasses a wide range of alternative courses of action.
 - 5.22 Surveys the full range of objectives to be fulfilled and the values implied by the choice.
 - 5.23 Carefully weighs whatever he or she knows about the cost and risk of negative consequences that could flow from each alternative.
 - 5.24 Searches intensely for information relevant to further evaluation of the alternatives.
 - 5.25 Utilizes feedback to reassess his or her preferred course of action.
 - 5.26 Reexamines the positive and negative consequences of all known alternatives.
 - 5.27 Makes detailed provisions for implementing or executing the chosen course of action including contingency plans.
 - 5.3 The person is able to implement successfully his or her plans. He or she can—

- 5.31 Identify stressful situations related to implementing goals.
- 5.32 Identify negative self-statements which interfere with implementing plans.
- 5.33 Utilize self-relaxation routines while anticipating the stressful implementation of plans.
- 5.34 Utilize self-rewards in goal attainment.
- 5.35 Identify additional skills needed to implement goals (e.g., anxiety management, training in assertiveness, overcoming shyness).

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Category 1: Skills in perceiving and responding to transitions. The first group of skills relates to a person's perceptions and responses to transitions. Perceptions toward change have an important relationship to how people interpret events. Two important perceptions are: (a) the acceptance of problematic situations as a normal part of living, and (b) a belief that each person has a variety of strengths that help him or her to cope with most of these situations effectively. When these beliefs are held, the individual gains an increased sense of self-control and self-esteem. Threats are no longer perceived as overwhelming.

These beliefs can be explored by discussing the person's reactions to previous life transitions. In this discussion, the counselor can validate the individual's strengths and coping skills. This is particularly important in situations where the career change is involuntary and people doubt their ability to cope with and survive the situation. They might also be asked to write an autobiography describing their life course with special emphasis on the coping skills that were helpful to them in the past. Sometimes information about developmental transitions as a normal part of life can also be useful. Readings such as *Seasons of a Man's Life* (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978), *Passages* (Sheehy, 1976), or *Transformations* (Gould, 1978) might be suggested and discussed.

Several other important skills are included in this first category. These skills relate to one's initial response to threat. They include describing threats accurately, recognizing the role of feelings in appraising a situation, and inhibiting both impulsiveness and passivity. These skills in responding to transitions allow individuals to gain awareness of how they think, feel, and behave when confronted with problematic situations. People's reactions are important clues about transitions that signal a need to heed other data from the environment. Inhibiting impulsiveness or passivity allows one time to appraise a problem situation accurately and to construct a proactive and reasoned coping response (Kahara & Kahara, 1976).

Sometimes a person considering career change will complain vaguely about his or her job. It is useful to help such a person describe the situation, using specific behavioral language such as: "When my supervisor criticizes me, he calls me slow in front of my coworkers and I feel

humiliated. It is often helpful for the person to keep a journal describing the emotional high and low situations on the job. This can be used to clarify complaints about one's job as well as to discover elements that might be desirable in a new job. Some people may have difficulty understanding their feelings and thus are unable to use their feelings as cues. Self-monitoring of feelings could be assigned during different times of the day and a list of feeling words provided as an aid to identifying possible feelings.

People can create metaphors to describe their complaints. For example, one woman stated that she was a "kaleidoscopic thinker in a telescopic job." She explained that she usually thinks about all the different facets of a problem but that her job requires her to focus her attentions on only one facet at a time. Inhibiting the tendency to act impulsively or passively is important. Sometimes people cope with developmental challenges by running away from them through changing careers. For instance, one man said that he found himself changing jobs whenever he was on the verge of becoming successful. He was afraid to face his fear of failure, because he knew that if he were given a challenging responsibility he might fail. Consequently, by changing jobs he failed to resolve his fear of failure and was left with a nagging ambivalence about success. Other people can become immobilized by transitions and become overly passive. A woman who was terminated became so anxious about seeking another job that she could not leave her house.

By discussing previous transitions, it is possible for a person to become aware of her or his general coping style. It is often useful to have people write an autobiography of their current career transitions, describing each transition in detail from the moment they became aware of it to their current situation, and then finishing the description with several possible endings. This can help them recognize coping skills that have been useful to them and may also instill a greater sense of having some choice about the eventual outcome. For example, a woman who considered leaving her job wrote one ending of a description in which she had a long discussion with her supervisor. The result was a restructuring of her work roles. In a second ending, she "networked" with professional colleagues and found a more suitable job with another organization. Her third ending involved changing her personal investment in her job. She imagined mentally letting go of some of the responsibilities that weighed her down with worry and then focused on enjoyment that came from several key aspects of her job.

Category 2: Skills for assessing, building, and utilizing external support systems. Individuals in transition often need extra sources of emotional support during times of change. Skills for developing and utilizing an external social support network involve identifying one's emotional needs and then seeking specific people to serve in one's support network. This search results in intentionally planning to spend time with people who provide support, or increasing the supportive quality of present relationships.

People often expect all of their support to come from a few people—typically a spouse or close friend of the family. Clients need to be urged to expand their social networks to include a variety of people, including

some of Hopson's types (Hopson & Adams, 1977): (a) whom we can depend on in a crisis, (b) with whom to discuss concerns, (c) whom we can feel close to, (d) who can make us feel competent and valued, (e) who can give us important information, (f) who will challenge our stereotyped thinking, and (g) with whom we can share good news and feelings.

Counselors can help clients assess their support needs by asking them to list people in various categories, or to pictorially represent them, using a method described by Waters and Goodman (1981). Sometimes key support people such as family members can be included in the counseling. Individuals may be able to change the quality of support by renegotiating such expectations.

People in career transitions who lack a support network, such as those who have made geographic moves and have left friendships in another community, may need to participate in formalized support groups generally consisting of individuals also involved in career transitions. Other groups, organized around various interests, provide support as a secondary benefit. These include groups where members share common interests in the outdoors, dancing, religious faith, or a variety of avocations.

Category 3: Skills for assessing, developing, and utilizing internal support systems. Internal support refers to "self-messages"—messages people give themselves about how they experience a transition. This internal self-talk provides critical or supportive messages during a transition. These internal thoughts and mental images allow people to remember and use past experiences in their current decisions and plans. However, their thoughts could function as "self-defeating instructions" also. This principle of self-instruction is true particularly for career changers who may unduly hamper themselves by fears of failure, low self-esteem, or inability to cope with frustrations.

Counselors can assist career changers in becoming more internally supportive in various ways. One method uses visualization to help them picture themselves as ideally they would like to be. As people relax, they are asked to picture themselves *in detail* feeling confident and happy, satisfied in their relationships with others, healthy, and spiritually at peace. They are asked to picture themselves in a variety of life roles, especially career roles, as they imagine feeling effective and well in each of these areas. As they visualize themselves behaving in the future, they are asked to notice as many details about themselves as they can. These include facial expressions, mannerisms, movements, voice tone, dress, eating habits, and interpersonal style, so that they can remember specific behavior whenever they want to remember the picture. Because this image represents an unattained ideal of themselves, they are asked to choose one or two details of this image to begin to implement in their lives. This might involve exercising daily, choosing healthful foods, or walking with greater confidence. People are introduced to the process of becoming the positive people they have imagined themselves to be potentially.

A second useful strategy to help career changers develop internal support is to teach them about cognitive distortions that lead them to feel discouraged, depressed, and frustrated. Burns (1980) described 10 typ-

ical cognitive distortions of career changers. For example, they may catastrophize their job circumstance, disqualify their positive attributes, or think in ways that increase their fears and limit their positive responses to career transitions. People can learn to recognize these distortions in their own thinking and substitute a natural alternative for these thoughts.

Category 4: Skills for managing emotional and physiological distress. Selye (1974) stated that stress is a normal condition of meeting changes and threats with adaptive responses. Stress involves physiological changes (general adaptation syndrome) that may be experienced as either anxiousness (distress), or as pleasure (eustress). The task for each person is to find the optimum amount of stressful stimulation that is exhilarating and energizing, and yet that maintains a feeling of relaxation and flow. Each person also must seek a balance between alternating periods of stress and quietness. Skills in this fourth group of coping skills are intended to manage the stress effects often associated with transition.

Counselors can help career changers to assess their responses to stress by discussing physiological, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral signs of distress. It is useful to elicit the methods the person has used previously to manage stress. He or she may have some useful methods of managing stress that are not being used at this time but that could be reactivated. Numerous strategies exist for managing stress. Muscle relaxation exercises, meditational breathing, cognitive restructuring, stress inoculation, and setting priorities are representative of these strategies.

It is important to note that not all approaches to stress management necessarily involve reducing stress. Some individuals lack sufficient stimulation to feel comfortable. Employees who are distressed because they lack occupational promotion, for example, may need to increase their activity level in order to manage stress.

Category 5: Skills for planning and implementing change. Personal transitions usually are accompanied by a desire to reassess one's current life style and to plan strategies for responding to the change constructively. Because of the importance of making effective decisions during transitions, some of the decision-making and implementing skills required have been specified.

Transitional decisions differ from routine life decisions because they involve the risk of suffering further loss. As a result of perceiving the potential risks, many people feel overwhelmed and experience acute choice conflict. This conflict is characterized by feelings of anxiety, hesitation, vacillation, and uncertainty. These feelings also may be accompanied by self-blame or a desire to escape from the situation (Lazarus, 1977).

Although there are various styles of decision making, skills in rational decision making are emphasized. According to Janis and Mann (1977), people who cope well under stressful conditions tend to utilize rational decision-making skills. The decisions of these people are more likely to lead to satisfactory outcomes than are those of people who use other methods. In contrast, poor decision making often leads to regrettable outcomes, feelings of helplessness or disappointment, and increased expectations of vulnerability.

Counselors can help career changers assess their decision-making skills by exploring previous decisions they felt were made effectively. From past experiences, people can clarify their typical decision-making styles, beliefs about risk taking, and abilities to implement plans.

Decision-making skills can be learned through various methods. Workbooks, such as those of Loughary and Ripley (1976), provide structures for applying rational decision-making skills to career decisions. Computer programs such as SIGI and DISCOVER can be useful in clarifying trade-offs in contrasting career choices. Visualization can be used to imagine oneself implementing divergent career choices. Self-management skills such as using self-rewards for attaining goals can be practiced as one takes action to explore career alternatives.

Career Development Coping Skills

In addition to general transition coping skills, career changers often need specific career development coping skills. These skills can be grouped as skills in self-assessment, gaining occupational and work environment information, and conducting a job search.

Category 1: Self-assessment skills. Self-assessment skills involve the ability to identify one's goals, values, and abilities related to work. Career goals are generally based on analysis of skills and values. One's career skills and values are usually assessed by reviewing previous accomplishments, present interests, and future dreams. Many writers have described approaches to identifying values and skills. Bolles (1977a, 1979b), Haldane, (Germann & Arnold, 1980), Crystal and Bolles (1974), and Brammer and Humberger (1984) systematically reviewed life accomplishments, describing each accomplishment and then clustering skills that clients enjoyed using. Loughary and Ripley (1976) provided workbook exercises for identifying values and abilities. Interest tests such as the Strong Campbell Interest Inventory can provide another perspective on work interests.

Career skills are usually divided into three categories: self-management skills, transferable skills, and specific knowledge skills. *Self-management* skills refer to personal attributes or traits describing a person's style of responding to problems and demands. These skills can be of great importance to success in various occupations. They include being dynamic, versatile, responsible, perceptive, concerned, compassionate, candid, sensitive, reliable, warm, open-minded, and outgoing. Self-management skills can be identified from checklists based on autobiographies, interpersonal feedback, and certain psychological tests.

Transferable "functional" skills can be utilized across a variety of occupations. These skills include communicating, managing, reporting, planning, organizing, coordinating, leading, delegating, and instructing. They can be clustered in various ways, such as data/people/things, or into Holland's categories. Transferable skills can be analyzed using materials developed by Bolles (1979a), Crystal and Bolles (1974), and Haldane (Germann & Arnold, 1980).

Specific knowledge skills are the least transferable. They include specific knowledge or procedures that are useful in one field of work but are not always transferable to other occupations. A nurse's knowledge of anatomical terms, for example, would be a specific knowledge skill with limited transferability to other career fields. Specific knowledge skills are most often learned through formal education.

Category 2: Skills in learning about occupations, employers, and work environments. Once career changers have identified their category 1 career skills, they then need to gather information about occupations, employers, and work environments. The *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, and professional or trade journals can provide useful occupational information. Additional occupational information, as well as information about specific employers or work environments, can be learned by networking and establishing personal contacts in organizations of interest. These personal contacts can then be interviewed for career information. A Department of Labor study reported that 54% of jobs are found through friends and relatives and another 31% are found through direct contacts. Only 5% were found through ads and 9% were found through a combination of school placement, state employment services, and private placement agencies (U.S. Department of Labor, 1981). Networking strategies have been described by Bolles (1979a), Germann and Arnold (1980), and Brammer and Humberger (1984).

Category 3: Skills in job search, career enhancement, and life style change. When a career changer has targeted an occupational role, potential employer, and work environment in which to utilize her or his skills, the next step involves the career change. At this stage, it is often important to develop job search or career enhancement skills. Interviewing and writing resumes are particularly important. For career changers who remain in the same organization, other skills may be useful for career transfer or advancement. One man, for example, took an advanced management course to develop skills to enhance his chances of obtaining a promotion. Skills for interviewing and writing resumes have been described by Bolles (1979a) and Brammer and Humberger (1984). Counselors can assist career changers by role playing interviews and reviewing resumes.

CONCLUSIONS

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, career changers will vary in their needs to develop new coping skills. The needs of voluntary changers will be different from involuntary career changers. Some people will benefit most from general coping skills and others will need primarily career-specific coping skills. It is hoped that the information presented in this chapter will help counselors working with adults with a variety of career concerns.

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CHAPTER 7

Systematic Career Guidance and Computer-Based Systems

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Career development professionals need to make a distinction between computer-based career *information* systems and computer-based career *guidance* systems and how each can contribute toward the delivery of a systematic career guidance program. Once a conceptual base is defined for the utility and applicability of systems, the task of identifying needed counselor roles and understandings as well as strategies for incorporating the computer into the program delivery process becomes less difficult. This chapter, therefore, has three major purposes: (a) to suggest some assumptions and a generic model for the content of a career guidance program; (b) to draw distinctions between computer-based career *information* and career *guidance* systems; and (c) to relate these two types of systems to the generic model proposed for the specific purpose of defining areas that need counselor support and intervention.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF A DEVELOPMENTAL CAREER GUIDANCE PROGRAM

In proposing a model for any activity, the model-maker must be working from a set of theoretical assumptions. Obviously, lack of acceptance of the assumptions may result in lack of acceptance of the model. For that reason the following clear statement of assumptions is set forth:

Assumption 1: Career guidance is a process, not a single or multiple choice-point event. A related assumption, therefore, is that a career guidance program is also a process that can be systematic, rather than a single one-shot treatment or a series of same. Super (Super, 1953; Super, Starishevsky, Matlin, & Jordaan, 1963; Super & Thompson, 1979; Super, 1981) has elaborated on the maxistages and developmental tasks and behaviors of this process whereas Tiedeman (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963; Tiedeman & Peatling, 1977) has defined and described the min-

istages and decisions inherent in them. Career development, then, is a normal developmental process that will ideally result in appropriate vocational maturity (i.e., knowing how to cope with the career development tasks of each life stage) and in satisfying vocational choices.

One natural inference from this assumption is that mastering the process of meeting and making career choices is at least as important as the choice itself. In other words, our career guidance programs should be designed in such a way that a process of choice making is learned. Having mastered this process, the student/client/decider is outfitted for reinitiating the process throughout life whenever new choice making is required or desirable. A further inference then is that evaluation of programs should not rest with comparing an occupational selection at point A with a job placement at point B to see if guidance effected a "good" decision, but rather with finding out if a process was learned at point A that could be applied again and again at Points B-Z.

Assumption 2: Good choice making (decision making) can only take place when the student/client/decider is in a state of readiness for doing so. The three predominant career choice and development theorists—Holland, Super, and Tiedeman—describe this "readiness" differently, but each is confident about its existence. Holland (1973) described it in terms of consistency (having interests and competencies that are relationally related to each other on his hexagon) and differentiation (having some areas of interest and competency significantly higher than others). Super (1974, 1981) described it in terms of vocational maturity, that is, in terms of having high vocational maturity scores at least on attitudinal scales of the Career Development Inventory, specifically "Awareness of Need to Plan" and "Knowledge and Use of Resources." Tiedeman (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963; Tiedeman & Peatling, 1977) described it in terms of having gone through the anticipation stage of the decision-making process, that is, exploration, crystallization, tentative choice, and clarification.

An inference from these theorists is that attempting to move students and clients ahead to choice and implementation before a state of readiness has been achieved may be a waste of time and money. For Holland, a state of consistency and differentiation of interests and competencies must be achieved before "good" choices can be made. For Super, a higher-than-average degree of vocational maturity as measured by the attitudinal scales in his Career Development Inventory (Super & Bowlsbey, 1981) needs to be achieved before moving on to cognitive content from which choice emerges. For Tiedeman, the implementation stage of decision making cannot be achieved without adequately going through the steps involved in the anticipation stage. For career guidance programs it means that elements must be built into programs to help accomplish these preliminary tasks to create the needed readiness for choice.

Assumption 3: Clear, realistic knowledge of self—especially preferred interests, strong competencies, and values—is a necessary prerequisite to vocational choices. Again, each of the major theorists addresses this topic in his own words. For Holland (1973) the choice of an occupation should be the congruent implementation of a consistent,

well-differentiated code as measured on his Self Directed Search (SDS) or Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI). The code is a simple statement of an individual's interests, competencies, and desired rewards. For Super (Super, Starishevsky, Malin, & Jordaan, 1963; Super, 1980, 1981), the choice of an occupation should be the implementation of a self-concept. For Tiedeman (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963; Tiedeman & Peatling, 1977) it should be a statement of self-identity.

Ideally, all individuals would have the luxury of such self-actualization through work. In the reality of vocational choice and compromise, many individuals may not be able to actualize self ideally through work alone due to the economy, shifts in work force caused by rapid technological change, and high unemployment. For many, this ideal self-actualization may have to take place in life roles—such as parent, spouse, homemaker, citizen, leisurite (Super, 1980)—other than worker or at least partially so. Nonetheless, focused self-knowledge is essential and prerequisite to utilization of interests, abilities, and values in any combination of life roles.

Assumption 4: Career and world-of-work information is likewise a necessary prerequisite to satisfying vocational choice. Parsons (1909) said it at the beginning of the vocational guidance movement, and none of the theorists would minimize it today. Holland (1973) said that individuals have to know which occupations are congruent with their personal codes. Super (1974) said that one has to process career information, world-of-work information, and specific occupational information in order to be vocationally mature. In Super's terms, career information refers to general information about the roles that make up career and the types of career patterns that one may design or fall subject to. World-of-work information refers to knowledge of the structure and interrelationships of occupations. Occupational information refers to knowledge of facts about job tasks, training, employment outlook, salary, and the like for specific occupations. Though it's as old as Parsons, it bears repeating that students/clients must acquire cognitive knowledge of a structure for organizing occupations, of general career development principles, and of basic facts about occupations that bear exploration.

Assumption 5: The catalyst that puts this all together as a workable system within an individual is decision-making skill. The need to make decisions is triggered by the awareness addressed in Assumption 2. The knowledge of self and of the outside world is the grist in the mill of decision making. The power for the mill is an internalized process of decision making that gives the individual control over the decisions and their outcomes as well as over the compromises that will inevitably have to be made. The decision-making process provides the structure for choice and the linkages needed between self information and world-of-work/occupational-career information. From these linkages flows a list of alternatives for further exploration, including reality testing.

Assumption 6: Implementation is not an activity unto itself, but should be a late step in the guidance process. Implementation behavior, such as applying for financial aid, college entrance, entry into

the military or apprenticeships, or job seeking should flow from the previous steps of the process described here.

A GENERIC MODEL FOR SYSTEMATIC CAREER GUIDANCE

Although models must usually be presented in such a way that one step logically follows another (and this model will be presented that way, too) the linear sequence of these steps is not that clear-cut, and some activities (such as acquiring self-information and world-of-work information) may be going on simultaneously. Based on the six assumptions stated previously, it seems that a developmental, systematic career guidance program has the following components:

Component 1: Development of readiness for career planning, information, and decision making. This may be the most difficult component of those described here. There has been very little recognition in the guidance field of the need for this component and even less research about how to develop it. Extensive research and development have been done (Super & Overstreet, 1960; Crites, 1971; Westbrook & Clarey, 1967), however, to measure the level of existence of readiness, and this construct has been identified as a significant factor of vocational maturity. One possible outcome of such assessment is the design of differential career guidance programs for individuals of differing levels of readiness. A second possible outcome is the assignment of individuals with different levels of readiness to these differential treatments. Further, a third use of such assessment is for the measuring of the differing effects of different methods of career guidance treatment.

How can systematic, developmental career guidance programs foster readiness, or stated in another way, create awareness of the need to plan ahead? Some things seem clear, based on research in Charles County, Maryland (Super & Bowsbey, 1981). First, the development of this awareness should be begun in the middle school years and is probably much more important than many of the activities currently included in career education. Second, parents have a large role in the development of these attitudes, and therefore the counselor should find ways to support the parent in this task. Third, time perspective or awareness of present-future relationships is a concept that grows with maturity; hence, the activities that are planned to foster it must be appropriate to the age level of the learners.

Creative work, not now existent, needs to be done to design appropriate activities for the development of readiness. These activities not only need to focus on awareness of need to plan and time perspective, but also on autonomy, internal locus of control, strength of self-concept, positive role models, exploration, information-seeking, and decision-making skill (Super & Bowsbey, 1981).

Component 2: Acquisition of relevant self-data. Given the assumption that good vocational choice provides an outlet for self-variables such as interests, abilities, and values and personality traits, assisting the decision maker to become aware of these aspects of self in an organized way is critical. There are at least three modes in which such self-

information can be acquired by the decider. First, a knowledgeable theory-based counselor can ferret out these aspects of self and provide students/clients with structure through one-to-one interviews. Second, a variety of measurement instruments—inventories of interests and values and batteries of aptitude tests—can be administered. Through them an individual is compared to a theory-based schema, to norm groups of others of similar age, or to adults already in specific occupations. Third, a computer can be programmed to perform the same functions as the measurement instruments by providing on-line test administration, scoring, and interpretation. In each of the three modes of delivery, the key variable is that linkages be made between the individual's profile on these variables and the titles of occupations that relate to the individual's profile, as described in Component 3.

Component 3: Translation of self data into information. Tiedeman (1970) made a distinction between "data" and "information." Data are a collection of facts, in this case, about the self. Information is data that have been personalized so that they inform the self about potential choice and paths of behavior. Starishevsky & Matlin (1963) referred to the same phenomenon as "translating *psychotalk* to *overtalk*," where "psychotalk" means a collection of fragments about the self and "overtalk" means occupational titles. I Corinthians may have stated the same principle as "Though I know all there is to know about self but cannot relate this knowledge to occupational choice, I am woefully destitute in relation to career planning."

The message is that any systematic career guidance program or material must assist the decider to make the linkage between relevant self-variables (interests, skills/aptitudes, values, goals) and occupational alternatives. Being able to do so implies an abundance of research to validate the linkages.

Component 4: Acquisition of relevant information about identified occupations. Information is absolutely central to the career guidance and decision-making process. Both the National Career Development Association (NCDA) [formerly the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA)] and the Association of Computer-Based Systems for Career Information (ACSCI) have written guidelines in regard to the content, accuracy, and recentness of occupational information. Well-developed information may be made available to deciders on paper, on microfiche, through computers, or by interviewing workers in the community. Obtaining comparable, complete, and timely information about all occupational alternatives under consideration is clearly needed as a basis for decision making.

Not only is occupational information needed, but likewise career and world-of-work information. Career information refers to knowledge of life stages, the tasks related to each, the composite of life roles that make up career in the broad sense and the career patterns that one might follow. This knowledge is important in assisting the individual with the lifelong process of career development and change and in helping with the understanding of the worker role in relation to all others. World-of-work information refers to knowledge about the organization of occu-

pations, characteristics on which they vary, and their interrelationships. This information can help individuals understand the potential for career change with or without retraining and the concept of transferability of skills.

Component 5: Acquisition and development of decision making skills. This component has been consistently identified by researchers as an ingredient of vocational maturity. It seems to include cognitive knowledge about decision-making styles and steps and the development of skills to follow the steps of a planned decision-making process. Such content and skills can be taught through didactic instruction by humans or computers or by guiding a person through the process without direct didactic instruction until the individual internalizes the process. The goal, of course, of such instruction-simulation is to assist the individual in learning a process that can be used again and again in all life roles, work related as well as others. Practice of the decision-making process allows the decider to gather appropriate information about identified alternatives, weigh the potential risks and rewards of each, judge which alternatives offer the best combinations of satisfaction and likely success, make tentative choices accordingly, and prepare for reality testing and implementation.

Component 6: Reality-testing of favored alternatives. The purpose of this component is to assist deciders to experience as realistically as possible the favored alternatives. Such testing may be done through simulations, course work, work-study programs, jobs, internships, or practical laboratory experience. The closer these experiences are to reality the more helpful they will be to the decision-making process. It is important for both the student and the counselor to remember that finding out that a given alternative is not a viable one is as important as finding out that an alternative is viable. The counselor should assume the role of "engineer of experience" for the decider and should assist in the process of identifying or creating useful reality testing experiences.

Out of reality testing, further collection of detailed information, and clarification should come choice. Choice consists of the selection of one alternative from among the several that may exist. This alternative should be the one that seems to have the highest probability of assisting the decider to find self-actualization in work and reach desired goals.

Component 7: Implementation of choice. The choice of an occupation always implies some next steps. These next steps may include preparing to enter a college or technical school, applying for financial aid, entering an apprenticeship or the military, or seeking and finding a job. Traditionally counselors have provided a great deal of assistance with some of these implementation steps without adequate attention to the preceding components of career development and choice. Assistance with implementation should lead to specific action steps and involvement in and commitment to a set of behaviors.

Presentation of this model in seven defined components can erroneously lead the reader to believe that after Component 7 the task is finished. Such is not the case. Career development is a series of completions of this process, each leading the decider, it is hoped, to a higher

level of vocational maturity and healthy growth. Skills, once learned, can be applied again and again to this process as personal desire and external circumstances demand.

INFORMATION SYSTEMS AND GUIDANCE SYSTEMS

Several modes of delivery of services can be utilized to assist students with the components or steps of the career guidance process. They include one-to-one counseling, workshops, group guidance, correspondence, telephone service, self-help materials, and the computer. In this chapter we focus our attention on the computer as a mode of delivery although it may be enhanced by one or a combination of the other modes.

The several computer-based systems that are available for lease or purchase in schools, agencies, and other settings can be viewed as plot points on a continuum with two poles. One pole is computer-based information systems, and the other is computer-based guidance systems. As development continues to grow in this field it becomes increasingly difficult to allocate systems to this continuum. This is true because the systems that once represented the information end of the continuum are making some movement toward adding elements of the guidance process. Similarly, the systems that once represented the guidance process end of the continuum are making movement toward improved methods of information development and addition of local data. Professionals who are reviewing and evaluating systems should consider the continuum and attempt to assign a relative position to each system under consideration as well as to assign a position to the "ideal" system desired to meet local needs.

Some functions are common to both information-emphasis and guidance process-emphasis systems. These functions are (a) the storing of large files of data; (b) the accessing of these files by a successive combination of variables; and (c) the provision of detailed information about options in the files as requested by the user. These files may contain information about occupations, colleges, technical schools, graduate schools, apprenticeships, military programs, financial aids, or employers. Access variables may be internal or external to the user. For example, internal variables may be interest or aptitude scores. External variables may be job characteristics, physical requirements, or related programs of study. Detailed information may be short summaries, responses to interactive questions, or lengthy printouts.

There are at least four characteristics on which information-emphasis and guidance process-emphasis systems typically vary. These are (1) the assessment of self-variables on-line (at the terminal); (2) the development of local occupational information; (3) the teaching of career development concepts; and (4) the storage of a user record.

Typical information-emphasis systems do not administer any assessment instruments (that is, interest inventories, ability rating scales, values inventories, and the like) at the computer terminal. Some may, however, utilize scores of such assessment instruments that have been taken on paper. Guidance process-emphasis systems, on the other hand,

do typically provide self-assessment instruments or simulations at the computer terminal because, by definition, they are considered to be at the heart of the guidance process.

Relating to the second distinction, information-emphasis systems specialize in the development of local labor market information. Although guidance process-emphasis systems are highly concerned about accurate and timely occupational information, they do not typically engage in the development of state labor market supply and demand information. Rather they utilize general occupational information (work tasks, training, general employment outlook, salary ranges, etc.) of a national scope garnered from a variety of national sources.

Third, information-emphasis systems do not typically use the computer to teach career development concepts such as clarification of values, organization of the world of work, the decision making process, job-seeking skills, or life career stages. On the other hand, career guidance-emphasis systems do because these topics and others are central to the career development process approach described in the beginning of this chapter.

Finally, information-emphasis systems do not typically store individual records of use in computer files. There is no necessity to do so because no personalized user data are being generated, and no long-term process is being monitored. Guidance-emphasis systems, alternatively, do create individual computer-stored records in order to "save" the results of self-assessment instruments for systematic use, remind the user of parts of the system used or not used, and generally monitor the user's progress through the prescribed process.

The boxed information entitled "Information and Guidance Systems Continuum" summarizes the information-guidance process continuum proposed here and the four specific elements that characterize this distinction.

Information and Guidance Systems Continuum

Information Emphasis Systems	Guidance Process-Emphasis Systems
1. Do not assess self-variables on-line.	1. Do assess self-variables on-line.
2. Do develop localized labor market information.	2. Do not develop localized labor market information.
3. Do not teach career development concepts on-line.	3. Do teach career development concepts on-line.
4. Do not store user records.	4. Do store user records.

COMPUTER-BASED SYSTEMS AND THE MODEL

At the outset of consideration of the role of the computer in relation to a systematic model of career guidance, it is important to state that none of the computer-based systems were designed to replace counselors or to be "stand-alone" systems. Research (Garis, 1982; Penn, 1981) has indicated that the best career guidance treatment for students is the combination of the computer and the counselor. If, however, there is inadequate staff to provide this combined treatment, the use of the computer alone produces positive and desirable effects far in excess of no treatment at all.

The real questions, then, relate to how much of the career guidance process to assign to the computer, how much to other modes of delivery, and how these roles can be shared. Table 1 summarizes the career guidance model that has been presented and provides an indication of the roles of computer-based information and guidance systems, counselors, and other modes of delivery in relation to the model. A review of Table 1 shows possible combinations of modes of delivery of the suggested components and indicates that guidance process systems provide relatively more support to the guidance process than information systems. This does not necessarily translate to the need for fewer counselors or a higher load for counselors because available research (Myers, Thompson, Lindeman, Super, Patrick, & Friel, 1972) on this topic indicates that individuals go to counselor more, not less, due to the use of computer-based systems. The topics that they discuss with counselors, however, are well beyond the information-giving level, thus providing the individual with an increased amount of help and the counselor with much more professional job duties.

Note that neither information systems nor guidance systems currently attempt to develop the readiness of their users for career information, decision making, and planning. This is currently a task left to counselors and to planned experiences in the classroom, home, and the community.

The second component—acquisition of relevant self data—is peculiar to the guidance systems, with a sharing of this role by counselors. Typical computer-delivered activities offered in this regard are the on-line administration and interpretation of inventories of work-related values or interests and the self-ratings of abilities or skills. The prominent career guidance systems assess interests, abilities or skills, and values. This organization of self data is used to provide a list of occupational titles for exploration. Further, the computer may be used to show the user the overlap or inconsistency between or among interests, values, and abilities. Doubtless future guidance systems will provide abilities testing in an adaptive mode so that data better than self-ratings can be acquired with a minimum of computer and user time. The computer is an excellent medium for this kind of self assessment because it provides the maximum in objectivity and is capable of providing a variety of personalized interpretations dependent upon the user's specific profile. Such interpretations, though personalized for a variety of specific combinations, can be delivered in a standard, objective way to each individual and with the advantage of the most expert knowledge behind both the assessment instruments and the interpretation.

Table 1
*Steps of the Career Guidance Model in Relation to
 Information and Guidance Model*

	<i>Other (curriculum, parents, work experience, etc.)</i>	<i>Computer- based Information Systems</i>	<i>Computer- based Guidance Systems</i>	<i>Counselor (one to one and/or group)</i>
1. Development of readiness for career planning, information, and decision making	XX			XX
2. Acquisition of relevant self-data			XX	XX
3. Translation of self-data into occupational alternatives		X	XX	XX
4. Acquisition of relevant information about identified occupations and related educational programs		XX	XX	
5. Acquisition and/or development of decision making skills	XX		XX	XX
6. Reality-testing of favored alternatives	XX			X
7. Implementation of choice		XX	XX	X

XX = *Primary responsibility*
 X = *Secondary responsibility*

The linkage of self data to occupations is performed by career guidance systems and by some information systems that utilize scores of assessment instruments taken on paper. The counselor also shares this role.

Both types of computer based systems can potentially do an excellent job of providing information about occupations targeted for exploration as well as providing cognitive knowledge of career and world of work information. Both the National Career Development Association (NCDA) and the Association of Computer Based Systems for Career Information (ACSCB) have provided guidelines in regard to the content, accuracy, timeliness, and scope of vocational information. Given that system developers adhere to these guidelines, the computer is an excellent mode of delivery for such information, which can be presented in an interactive question-and-answer format or in lengthy descriptions.

The computer has several significant advantages in the delivery of occupational information. First, it has high motivational appeal. At least one study (McKinlay & Adams, 1971) has indicated that poor readers can read text broken into segments and displayed on a screen considerably better than they can read the same text in printed form. In addition to its appeal in computer-delivered form, occupational information can be presented in a totally objective, nonbiased way (assuming the text is written that way) without the subtle nonverbal messages that we humans sometimes transmit. Finally, computer stored occupational information can be updated much more dynamically (assuming the availability of new data) than printed information because of the capability for constant on-line maintenance.

It has already been stated that Component 5—the acquisition and development of decision-making skills—is a hallmark of the guidance systems. There is insufficient knowledge about how decision making skill is acquired or can be taught. Nevertheless guidance systems are attempting to make a contribution in this area both by the didactic teaching (utilizing computer assisted instruction methods) of the steps of the decision-making process and by utilizing the monitoring function of the computer to shepherd users through a planned process (hoping that they may internalize it) whether they are cognitively aware of it or not.

Neither information nor guidance systems are currently doing an adequate job with Component 6—assisting individuals with the reality-testing of favored occupational alternatives. By definition, reality testing is a trial run in the real world, a putting of self into the real situation in order to experience the resulting satisfaction or dissatisfaction. For this reason, computers will never do the whole job; simulation will never be enough. This is a component with which the community, the employer, and the school can provide substantial help. Guidance and information systems that approach this goal by the use of the videotask, with full sound and motion. With this new medium under computer control, the user will be able to see and hear work settings and work tasks, and thus will be closer to reality than reading about.

Both guidance and information systems are providing significant assistance in the implementation of choice. This component involves assisting people with the next steps after choice of an occupation. These next steps involve selecting a major, a college, graduate school, technical

school, job, military program, or acquiring financial aid. The different guidance and information systems vary considerably in terms of the number of these files provided and the extent of the data in each file. Potentially computers can provide assistance with this component well beyond that which the counselor can provide because the best capabilities of the computer are utilized.

SUMMARY

This chapter has stated some basic assumptions of a developmental career guidance program. From these assumptions, seven components deemed essential to a career guidance program were derived and described. Following that, two types of computer based programs—information-emphasis and guidance process-emphasis—were described and defined. Finally, these types of systems and other modes of delivery were reviewed in light of the seven components. Observations were made about the contributions of each type of system to the proposed generic model.

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CHAPTER 8

A Team Approach to Career Counseling

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Adult career development requires teamwork. For optimal career counseling of working adults, it is necessary to consider the contributions and resources provided by three players: the professionally trained career counselor, the career planner, and the employer or potential employer. Each has a role in the career planning process.

Also, the career planning and counseling process is only as good as the data upon which it is based. The career counselor may identify areas where more information is needed and may facilitate the process of learning more about career planning. The work place can provide guidance relevant to environmental expectations and needs, but the final steps—weighing information, selecting goals, and taking action—can be accomplished only by the individual career planner.

Because different players make different contributions to the career planning process, a variety of counseling interventions should be utilized whenever possible. Three major categories of counseling interventions are discussed in this chapter: professionally assisted counseling, self-paced counseling, and managerial counseling.

COUNSELOR-ASSISTED CAREER PLANNING

Although theoretical approaches differ, most professional career counselors attempt to follow the following general guidelines:

- appreciate, understand, and attend to the unique life planning history and future needs of each client;
- explore the dynamic history of each client and understand that career planning must go hand in hand with overall life planning and adult development issues.

- instruct the career planner in a decision-making model that can have ongoing significance as it is applied to other life decisions and that can be used without a counselor;
- give general career information when it is available, but more important, teach the adult career planner how to find information specific to his or her needs; and
- help the adult career planner use the resources of the work environment by developing networking, mentoring, and managerial appraisal and coaching contacts.

Another particularly valuable counseling tool for working with adults is the career planning workshop. In addition to being more cost-effective than individual counseling, it may be a number of reasons be more effective in facilitating the career planning process (Bower & Hall, 1977). Group members help each other both practically and emotionally. In the first place, the leader and other participants can provide information on job possibilities and alternative solutions to career problems that might not be available without group input. Second, group participants find that they share many concerns, worries, and aspirations with others. This realization reduces both their sense of isolation and fear of being alone in their confusion and struggle.

The group is instrumental in developing social skills that can generalize to the career planning skills of interviewing, dealing assertively with a boss, and selling one's ideas. In addition, the workshop leader and other participants can serve as role models for the risk taking required in career decision making. Furthermore, a group can serve as a motivational force and stimulant to independent action. Reporting back to the group on progress made over time works as effectively in career planning as it has for so many others in groups such as Alcoholics Anonymous and Weight Watchers.

An effective career development workshop for the adult learner can easily mirror the overall career planning process used in self-paced or individual career counseling efforts. The core of such programs, then, would consist of segments devoted to understanding self, understanding the environment, and eventually taking action. A life management component effectively addresses those specific adult transitions that often make career planning more complex in adult years. Those adult issues may include family and parenting responsibilities, financial management, and divorce and separation difficulties.

SELF-PACED CAREER INTERVENTIONS

In the real world of career decision making, however, the career counselor has limited resources and energy to reach the many clients who could benefit from career counseling. In its place of, and sometimes alongside of, one-to-one counseling and group interventions are self-paced career explorations and the use of appropriate adult models and coaches in the career development process. As Holland (1974) suggested, "the provision of information about self and careers in comprehensive, accessible and inexpensive ways may do for vocational counseling what penicillin has done for medicine." However, a self-paced approach re-

quires a capacity for self-direction and motivation that many adult career planners lack, particularly because most have not been instructed in such a model.

Self-paced career resource centers can give structure to this approach by providing self-administered career assessment tools, organized and classified occupational information, and computer-assisted vocational exploration. These systems are particularly well suited to the adult career planner's initiative and readiness to learn. Such career resource centers currently operate in many colleges and universities, community-based counseling centers, and employment settings.

For example, the career resource center at the U.S. General Accounting Office is based on a model developed at Goddard Space Flight Center. The center serves a dual purpose: It is designed to help individual employees in their career development while also serving as a tool to help managers and supervisors promote and facilitate their staffs' career development. The center includes four activity stations, each corresponding to one of the major phases of the career life planning process.

Station A—Understanding Self. Provides self-scored instruments and materials to help the individual clarify personal values, goals, needs, interests, and skills.

Station B—Understanding Environment. Provides information on career path patterns and skill requirements for various occupations both within and outside the federal government. Station B is designed to help individuals analyze their realistic educational options and employment opportunities.

Station C—Taking Action. Provides a decision-making strategy that integrates information about self with information about the environment in order to construct a realistic action plan. Guides to implementation, such as interviewing techniques, assertiveness skills, and resume preparation, are included.

Station D—Life Management. Involves self-assessment checklists, pamphlets, resource books, and referral sources on a wide range of life concerns, including marriage, family, parenting, self-understanding, intimacy, midlife transition, retirement, financial management, health, stress, and grief.

Skills learned through use of a career resource center may be applied in any life or career transition. Both the individual and the organization gain from self-paced career resource programs, particularly when organizational systems exist to support such programs.

EMPLOYER-ASSISTED CAREER PLANNING

The third category of the career counseling interventions is centered on the assistance of the employers in the work place. To support a truly integrative process, career counseling must be a cooperative effort among the employee, the professional counselor, and the manager. Each of these parties has a distinct role, but each is dependent on the other. The manager's role is important from a practical counseling perspective. Leibowitz and Schlossberg (1981, p. 73) listed nine roles the supervisor/manager may play:

- **communicator:** One who promotes a two-way exchange between him-
self or herself and the employee.
- **counselor:** One who helps the employee clarify goals and identify
steps to take to reach these goals, whether or not they relate to the
present organization.
- **appraiser:** One who evaluates an employee's performance and helps
to work out a development plan so the employee can achieve objec-
tives specific to the current job.
- **coach:** One who gives instruction or skill training to enable an em-
ployee to do his or her job more effectively.
- **mentor:** One who serves as a sponsor to facilitate an employee's
career growth.
- **advisor:** One who gives information about career opportunities both
within and outside the organization.
- **broker:** One who serves as an agent (go-between) for the employee
and recommends him or her to other resources such as people or
institutions.
- **referral agent:** One who identifies resources to help an employee with
specific problems; and
- **advocate:** One who intervenes on behalf of an employee for benefits,
promotions, and elimination of obstacles.

The manager's success in each of these roles is dependent on counseling ability and an understanding of how career development activities fit into the manager's job. Changing social values, different career patterns, and varying employee aspirations present today's manager with problems that the typical Master of Business Administration program does not address. One of the roles of the professional counselor is to help the manager acquire and perfect the career counseling skills needed in the work place.

The concept of the manager as counselor has not been accepted with open arms by most managers. Many see it as taking away from time they traditionally devote to production. Adding to this concern is the fear of not having the ability to handle these activities adequately.

In some organizations professional counselors in the work place have begun implementing educational and support activities to help the managers develop career counseling skills. Their primary objective is to provide the manager with:

- an understanding of the career development process;
- an understanding of the organization's obligations and the individ-
ual's responsibilities; and
- an opportunity to learn and practice interpersonal and counseling
skills.

Government and business organizations are replete with illustrations of these efforts. Some efforts, such as the General Electric Company program (Jones, Kaye, & Taylor, 1981), stress the expansion of the manager's knowledge of career development, whereas others, such as those at IBM and the U.S. General Accounting Office, offer workshops that emphasize interpersonal and counseling skill building. Common to all of these programs is the effort to bring counseling techniques to the work

place and to emphasize the connection between individual career planning and development and organizational needs. If such programs are to be beneficial for both the individual and the organization, a relationship must be established between supervisor and employee, as Edgar Schein (1977) emphasized: "If the organization can open up the communications channel between employees, their bosses, and whoever is managing the human resource system, the groundwork is laid for realistic individual development planning."

Managers must focus on one-to-one career counseling with their employees. They must structure sessions to discuss topics such as

- employees' goals and aspirations, both long- and short-range;
- employees' expectations of themselves and the organization;
- the organization's plans and objectives, and how they relate to the work within the unit;
- real and possible opportunities for employees;
- other alternatives such as training, job rotation, and career transitions;
- employees' strengths and weaknesses as they pertain to present assignments and possible future assignments; and
- ways to develop individual development plans or to seek additional data or counseling.

For this career counseling system to work, information must be available to the manager and employee during counseling. Information about employees can emanate from personal assessments, counselor interaction, career resource materials, or in some instances formal assessment centers. The assessment center is becoming a major counseling tool for both managers and employees. Assessment of styles and competencies, coupled with career counseling and individual development planning, gives employees the opportunity to explore their potential fully and evaluate their goals and the expectations of the organization realistically. Although information obtained from the assessment centers has in the past focused on handling various production aspects of the job, centers now examine the individual's unique competencies. The manager and employee can then look at this information as it relates to the job they will be expected to accomplish. For instance, in many assessment programs, such as IBM United Kingdom (London & Bray, undated), participants are required to write out their career and life goals, information that is used later during the counseling sessions.

A major area of confusion for the manager is the relationship between career counseling and performance appraisal. Many authors have discussed this topic (Schnrey & Carroll, 1982) from varying perspectives. One of the recurring principles is that the performance appraisal session must be separate from the counseling session that deals with potential performance and career progression. This is especially true if the manager must determine pay based on the employee's performance appraisal.

Often, the employee-manager relationship becomes strained because of misunderstandings about future assignments, promotions, and other expectations. These misunderstandings then lead to distrust and deeper organizational and personal problems. The career counseling process

provides the opportunity to discuss freely the employee's expectations as they relate to the job. If realistic goals are set and agreed to by the manager and the employee, future discussions will be easier for both parties.

Counselors can use the career counseling process as a means of impressing upon management the effectiveness of counseling services in the work place. By working with managers, professional counselors increase their ability to identify other counseling needs such as the need to identify emotional problems that manifest themselves on the job. This then leads to a more systematic approach to life and career planning.

A relatively recent approach to managerial counseling is the mentor program. Several corporations are employing the mentor concept in the development of future managers and employees. Both private corporations, such as Federal Express, and public organizations, such as the U.S. Government Senior Executive Service, have enjoyed high success with this approach to career guidance. The mentor-mentee counseling relationship connotes a longer and more intimate relationship than that of manager-employee or employee-counselor and therefore must be treated somewhat differently. The mentor relationship, as seen by Lundberg (1984), has two functions: the career function, which employs sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenge; and the psychosocial function, which includes role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship.

Following are the major characteristics of the *good* mentor-mentee relationship:

1. Mentors must possess interpersonal skills that promote openness and candor, and a willingness to share concern and provide constructive feedback.
2. The mentor-mentee relationship should be voluntary and the mentor should not be the immediate supervisor. In fact, the mentor should be from another unit within the organization.
3. The mentor should have multifunctional experience at the top of the organization and should have enough power to assist in supporting the mentee's developmental needs.
4. The mentor-mentee relationship should be a "no harm" one so that if it doesn't work, neither party is harmed.

The notion of the mentor's providing a clear and uncomplicated avenue to career success is not the essence of the program. The mentor concept is important in career planning because it provides an added dimension that is missing in counselor-assisted or self-paced programs—knowledge of the informal rules based on experience.

SUMMARY

Professional counselors, employers, and the individual all have a mutual goal—to promote decisions and actions that lead to productive and satisfying employment. Professionally assisted counseling, self-paced counseling, and managerial counseling must all come together in a mutually supportive relationship to maximize the productivity of careers.

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